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T H E

LITERARY AND BIOGRAPHICAL

M A G A Z I N E,

A N D

B R I T I S H   R E V I E W,

For JUNE, 1791.

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BIOGRAPHICAL ANECDOTES OF JEDEDIAH BUXTON.

WITH AN ELEGANT HEAD.

**B**IOGRAPHY furnishes us with many instances of persons remarkable for the strength of their memories, which, when we reflect on the extent of that faculty in the generality of mankind, might be considered as fabulous, were not some of them too well attested to be doubted. Mithridates, who ruled over twenty-two nations, was acquainted with all their languages, and able to express himself with fluency in each. Hortensius, one of the most celebrated orators of ancient Rome, had so happy a memory, that after studying a discourse, though he had not written down a single word of it, he could repeat it exactly in the same manner in which he had composed it. His powers of mind in this respect were really astonishing, and we are told, that in consequence of a wager with one Sienna, he spent a whole day at an auction, and when it was ended, he recapitulated every article that had been sold, together with the prices, and the names of the purchasers in

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their proper order, without erring in one point, as was proved by the clerk who followed him with his book. Lipsius, so celebrated for his erudition, remembered the whole history of Tacitus, and pledged himself to recite, word for word, any passage that might be required, consenting, at the same time, to allow a person to stand by him with a dagger, and to plunge it into his body if he did not faithfully repeat the words of the author. Muret relates, that he dictated one day to a young Corsican, an innumerable multitude of Greek, Latin, and barbarous words, all distinct from each other, and that when he was tired of dictating, the Corsican repeated them without hesitation, in the same order, and then repeated them in a reversed order, beginning at the last. These examples are, no doubt, astonishing; but what is related of Jedediah Buxton, a poor, illiterate, English peasant, seems to exceed them all.

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John

John Buxton, the grandfather of this singular character, was vicar of Elmeton, a small village, not far from Chesterfield, in Derbyshire; and his father, William Buxton, was school-master of the same parish, where Jedediah was born, about the beginning of the present century, in what year we cannot exactly ascertain; but it is probable that it was in 1704 or 1705.

Notwithstanding the profession of his father, Jedediah's education seems to have been totally neglected, for he was never taught either to read or write. How he came first to know the relative proportions of numbers, their powers and progressive denominations, he never could remember; but to these objects he applied the whole force of his mind, and upon these his attention was so constantly rivetted, that he frequently took no notice of external objects, and when he did, it was only with respect to their numbers. This propensity of his mind to calculation manifested itself upon almost every occasion, and seemed, like a kind of instinct, to turn his thoughts continually to this one point. If any space of time was mentioned before him, he would soon after say, that it contained so many minutes; and if any distance, he would assign the number of hair-breadths in it, even when no question was asked him by the company.

By this method, he greatly encreased the powers of his memory with respect to figures, and stored up several common products in his mind, such as the number of minutes in a year; of hair-breadths in a mile; and many others, to which he could have immediate recourse when necessary. When he once comprehended a question, which he could not do without some difficulty, and after a certain length of time, he began to work with amazing facility, and would leave a long question half wrought, and resume it at the end of several months, beginning where he had broke off, and proceeding regularly till it was completed.

His memory, it appears, would have been equally retentive with respect to other objects, had he bestowed the same attention upon them; but his perpetual application to figures, for which the powers of his mind seem to have been wonderfully calculated, prevented him from making the smallest acquisition in any other branch of knowledge; and his ideas on that account were as confined perhaps as those of a boy of ten years of age in the same class of life. He was sometimes asked, on his return from church, whether he remembered the text, or any part of the sermon; but he never could repeat a single word of either, so absorbed had his thoughts been even during divine service, either in dividing some time or space into the smallest known parts, or resolving some problem that had been given him as a test of his abilities. His power of abstraction was so great, that no noise whatever could disturb him; and when asked any question, he would immediately reply, and return to his calculation, without any confusion, or the loss of more time than his answer required. His method of working was peculiar to himself, and by no means the shortest or clearest, as will appear by the following example:

Being required to multiply 456 by 378, he gave the product as soon as a person in company had completed it in the common way, and when requested to work it audibly, that his method might be known, he multiplied 456 first by 5, which produced 2280; this he again multiplied by 20, and found the product 45600; which was the multiplicand multiplied by 100; this product he again multiplied by 3, which produced 136,800, the sum of the multiplicand multiplied by 300. It remained, therefore, to multiply this by 78, which he effected by multiplying 2280 (the product of the multiplicand multiplied by 5) by 15; 5 times 15 being 75; this product being 34,200, he added to the 136,800, which was the multiplicand multiplied by 300, and

and this produced 171,000, which was 375 times 456. To complete his operation, therefore, he multiplied 456 by 3, which produced 1368, and having added this number to 171,000, he found the product of 456 multiplied by 378, to be 172,368.

By this it appears that Jedediah's method of arithmetic was entirely his own, and that he was so little acquainted with the common rules, as to multiply 456 first by 5, and the product by 20, to find what sum it would produce multiplied by 100; whereas had he added two cyphers to the figures, he would have obtained the product all at once.

A person who had heard of his astonishing performances, meeting with him accidentally, in order to try his calculating powers, proposed to him the following question: In a body whose three sides are 23,145.789 yards, 5,642,732 yards, and 54,965 yards, how many cubical eighths of an inch? After once naming the several figures distinctly one after the other, in order to assure himself of the several dimensions, and fix them in his mind, this self-taught calculator immediately fell to work amidst more than an hundred of his fellow-labourers, and the proposer of the question leaving him for about five hours, during which he calculated the answer with his pen, returned, and found Jedediah ready with his answer, which was proved to be exactly right.

Another person proposed to him the following: Admit a field to be 423 yards long, and 383 wide, what is the area? After the figures were read to him distinctly, he gave the true product 162,009 yards, in the space of two minutes, for the proposer observed by his watch how long each operation took him. The same person asked him, how many acres the said field measured? and in eleven minutes he replied, 33 acres, 1 rood, 35 perches, 20 yards and a quarter. He was then asked, how many barley ears would reach eight miles. In a minute and a half he answered,

1,520,640 barley ears. He was likewise asked, supposing the distance between York and London to be 204 miles, how many times will a coach-wheel turn round in that space, allowing the circumference of the wheel to be six yards? In thirteen minutes he answered, 59,840 times. The next proposition was, if a tub or bin be 346 inches long, 256 inches wide, and 94 inches deep, how many gallons liquid measure will it hold, and what quantity of corn? His answer was, 3,454,464 solid inches, or 1,768,685,568 half quarters of solid inches, making 12,249,872 gallons liquid measure, or 12,249 gallons 3 quarts and  $3\frac{1}{2}$  inches; or 191 quarters 3 bushels 3 quarters and a half quarter, remainder  $3\frac{1}{2}$  inches. He was then asked, suppose a canal is to be dug 426 feet long, 263 wide, and two feet and a half deep, how many cubical yards of earth must be removed? After pausing a quarter of an hour, he answered, 10,373 yards 24 feet.

He told the person who proposed these questions to him, that from May the 17th, 1725, to June the 16th following, he was, according to his own expression, *drunk* with reckoning by his memory, after which he slept soundly for seven hours: but he added, that he would never again attempt so much, for fear of falling into the same disagreeable situation. What he meant by being drunk, undoubtedly was, that his senses were so much stupified, as to render him incapable of business; and that this should be the case, will not appear at all wonderful, when we consider the question that engaged his attention, which was in 202,680,000,360 miles, and each mile reckoned to be cubical, how many barley ears, vetches, peas, wheat, oats, rye, beans, lintels, and hairs, each an inch long, would fill that space, reckoning 48 hairs in breadth to an inch on the flat, as he found them to be?

Though these instances, which seem to be well authenticated, are sufficient proofs of Jedediah's astonishing

nishing strength of mind, for the further satisfaction of our curious readers, we shall subjoin the following. Being asked, how long after the firing of one of the cannons at Retford, the report might be heard at Haughton-Park, the distance being five miles, and supposing sound to move at the rate of 1142 feet in one second of time; he replied, after about a quarter of an hour, in 23 seconds  $\frac{7}{10}$ -ths, and that 46 remained. He was then asked, admit 3584 brocoli plants are set in rows, four feet asunder, and the plants seven feet apart, in a rectangular plot of ground, how much land will these plants occupy? In near half an hour, he said 2 acres 1 rood 8 perches and a half. The next question, however, exercised all his faculties, and he declared it was the hardest he had ever met with, which evidently shews that he had never applied his thoughts to the cube root. This question was, what dimensions must be given to a joiner to make a cubical bin that shall hold just a quarter of malt, Winchester measure?—"Notwithstanding the difficulty of this question," says the proposer, "Jedediah was very desirous to answer it before it was too late in the evening, and after some time, he said to himself, *there were nooks in it, but he would sift them about.* He never regarded our talking, but sat as one heedless of every thing about him, except his pot of beer, which he took notice of.

"I gave him no hints, help, or assistance, but left it entirely to himself, as I did the others, nor had he any thing in his hand to make any marks, (which I must repeat, because he makes all his computations by his memory) and after about an hour, he told me it would be a little more than  $25\frac{1}{2}$  inches on a side, and that 26 inches would be too much, all which is very true and exact.

"I shall here," continues the proposer of the above questions, "subjoin an account he gave me of the

"quantity of ale, or strong beer, that he has drank on free cost since he was twelve years of age, and the gentlemen's names where; and as the account was a little particular, I asked him *huc et illuc*, after I had committed it to paper, and he answered each demand as set down at the houses of the following noblemen and gentlemen:

Pints.	Pints.
D. of Kingston 2130	Rev. Mr. Pegge 10
D. of Norfolk 266	Mr. Richardson 7
Duke of Leeds 232	Mr. Raynes 30
D. of Devonshire 10	Mr. Stevens 8
Lady Oxford 280	Mr. Far 1
G. Heathcote, Esq. 160	Mr. Greenwood 77
Sir G. Savile, Bt. 20	Mr. Shaw 1
T. Thornhaugh, Esq. 20	Mr. Barker 15
Sir L. Pilkington, Bt. 2	Mr. Sifton 12
J. Briflow, Esq. 92	Mr. Major 2
W. Villareal, Esq. 8	Mr. Briggs 3
Sir H. Hanlock, Bt. 2	Mr. Pilkington 1
— Burton, Esq. 4	Mr. J. Briggs 4
— White, Esq. 1	Mr. Beellings 46
Dr. Burne 5	Gathering for his
Mr. Hock 251	dead cow 71
Mr. West 201	Rev. Mr. Hewet 1
Mr. Vesey 16	Col. Chadwick 1
Rv. Mr. Hartshorn 19	Mr. Halfhead 15
Mr. Flint 317	Mr. Wright 40
— Clarke, Esq. 20	At Elmeton ma-
— Hallows, Esq. 12	nor 320
Sir J. Jenkinson, Bart. 1	Mr. Sherwin 15
Mr. Hancock 54	Mr. Carteret 16
Mr. Hall 63	Mr. Lane 20
Mr. E. Sharpe, of Elkelly 5	Mr. Whitehouse 3
Mr. T. Sharpe 16	Mr. R. Parkin 40
Rev. Mr. Boawre 17	Mr. R. Green-wood 61
Mr. Willeits 17	Mr. Th. Clarke 40
Mr. Mayor, of Chesterfield 2	Mr. Bullivant 7
	Mr. Padley 20
	At my own house 10

The whole amounting to 5116 pints, or *winds*, as he termed them, because he never used, according to his own account, above one *wind* to a pint, or two to a quart.

This extraordinary man would stride over a piece of land or a field, and tell the contents of it with as much exactness as if he had measured it by the chain. In this manner he measured the whole lordship of Elmeton, of some thousands of acres, belonging to Sir John Rhodes, and brought him the contents, not only in acres, roods and perches, but even in square inches. After this, he reduced them, for



for his own amusement, into square hair-breadths, computing about forty-eight to each side of the inch, which produced such an incomprehensible number, as appeared altogether astonishing.

The only objects of Jedediah's curiosity, next to figures, were the king and royal family; and his desire to see them was so strong, that in the beginning of spring, 1754, he walked up to London for that purpose, but was obliged to return disappointed, as his majesty had removed to Kensington, just as he arrived in town. He was, however, introduced to the Royal Society, whom he called the *Folk of the Sixty Court*. The gentlemen who were then present, asked him several questions in arithmetic, to prove his abilities, and dismissed him with a handsome gratuity.

During his residence in London, he was carried to see the tragedy of King Richard III. performed at Drury-Lane play-house, and it was expected that the novelty of every thing in this place, together with the splendour of the surrounding objects, would have fixed him in astonishment, or that his passions would in some degree have been roused by the action of the performers, even if he did not fully comprehend the dialogue; but in the play-house Jedediah's thoughts were employed in the same manner as in church. During the dances, his attention was engaged in reckoning the number of steps. After a fine piece of music, he declared, that the innumerable sounds produced by the instruments, perplexed him beyond measure; but he counted the words uttered by Mr. Garrick in the whole course of the entertainment; and affirmed, that in this he had perfectly succeeded.

The life of laborious poverty, which, for the most part, is equally uniform and obscure, can afford little variety either to gratify curiosity, or swell the page of biography. The events of one day may exhibit a very just picture of those of a whole series of years; and this appears to be the

case in respect to Jedediah Buxton; in whom time changed nothing but his age, nor did the seasons vary his employment, except that in winter he used a flail, and in summer a ling-hook.

Born to no fortune, and brought up to no particular profession, he supported himself by the labour of his hands, and though his talents, had they been properly cultivated, might have qualified him for acting a distinguished part on the theatre of life, he pursued "the noiseless tenor of his way," sufficiently contented if he could gratify the wants of nature, and procure a daily subsistence for himself and family.

If his enjoyments were few, they seem to have been fully equivalent to his wishes. Though favoured by nature in a very singular manner, and though the powers of his mind raised him far above his humble companions, who earned their bread in the like manner, by the sweat of their brow, ambitious thoughts never interrupted his repose, nor did he on his return from London, regret the loss of any of those delicacies which he had left behind him. Fully satisfied with his rustic fare, he despised the luxuries of the great, and while his chief pleasure was to exercise his mind by calculation, he was still of opinion that a slice of ruddy bacon afforded the most delicious repast. It is to such characters as Buxton that the poet Gray alludes, in his *Elegy* in a Country Church-yard, where he says,

Full many a gem of purest ray serene,  
The dark, unfathom'd caves of ocean  
bear:  
Full many a flower is born to blush unseen,  
And waste its sweetness on the desert  
air.

The portrait of Buxton, here annexed, we are assured, is a very striking likeness, and was transmitted to us by a respectable correspondent at Warwick, together with the following letter:

"Enclosed I send you, agreeable to  
"my promise, the best likeness that  
"ever

“ ever was taken of that surprizing  
 “ calculator Jedediah Buxton, a poor  
 “ day-labourer, who could neither  
 “ read nor write, and yet, by the clear-  
 “ nefs of his head and amazing strength  
 “ of memory, was able to work the  
 “ most intricate questions in arith-  
 “ metic, and to solve the most difficult  
 “ problems. When I saw him, which  
 “ is now upwards of twenty years  
 “ ago, he worked in the gardens of  
 “ the late Duke of Kingston, at Thoresby, in Nottinghamshire; and I  
 “ believe it was principally owing to  
 “ that nobleman’s gardener (a man  
 “ well versed in figures) that Jedediah’s  
 “ astonishing powers in calculation  
 “ were first tried. He had been  
 “ frequently told by his fellow  
 “ labourers of this faculty, and they  
 “ desired the gardener to set him a  
 “ question, in order to try whether  
 “ their report of him was true, which  
 “ at last he did. The product of the  
 “ question proposed consisted of thirty-six figures, and when he had finished it, Jedediah asked the gardener at which end he should begin. Being told, he was asked to call the figures over the contrary way, which he did without the least hesitation. He was then desired to multiply the thirty-six figures by the same thirty-six, which he performed perfectly correct. The gardener afterwards desired he would inform him, how many square yards Europe contained, which he also performed with great exactness; and at another time the old man undertook to calculate the square hairbreadths in the parish of Balbour, in Derbyshire, at the request of a gentleman in that neighbourhood, which he executed to the entire satisfaction of his employer. “ Sometimes he would omit the cyphers in his calculations, which consequently deceived the other figures, and put him wrong. He would then seem much displeased with himself, but putting the fore finger of his right hand into the left, in a little time he would set

“ himself right. In short his mind  
 “ was as capacious as the ocean, for  
 “ he would multiply any number of  
 “ figures either by the whole or any  
 “ part of them, and at different times,  
 “ and store up the various products  
 “ in his memory, so as to give you  
 “ the answers, though it were several months after. Nay he would work at several questions at the same time, that is, first begin one, and work it half through, then another, and so on, working in this manner six or eight questions, and would either as soon as finished, or several months after, tell the result.

“ This extraordinary phenomenon was born at Elmeton, in Derbyshire, and when this drawing was taken, viz. 14th January, 1764, at 38’ 43” after three P. M. he was, by his own calculation, fifty-six years, ten months, one week, two days, nine hours, fifty-three minutes, and forty-three seconds old \*. He calculated his age likewise in days 20,743. 9°. 53’. 43”. in hours 497,841. 53’. 43”. in minutes 29,870,513. 43”. and in seconds 1,792,230,823. When any person asked him to calculate a question, he would sit down, take off his old brown hat, and resting upon his stick, which was generally a very crooked one, he would set to work. He mostly wore on his head either a linen or a woollen cap, with a handkerchief thrown carelessly round his neck, and lived to about seventy years of age; but the exact time of his death I do not recollect, not having been in that part of the country for several years.”

Jedediah was a married man, and had several children; but whether any of his posterity be still alive, we do not know. If any of our correspondents will be so kind as to give us further information respecting him, or his family, their communications will be thankfully received, and due attention paid to them.

\* This account of his age differs a little from some others which we have seen.

A DISCOURSE UPON CLOTHES, DRESS, AND FASHIONS; AS  
DRAWN FROM SEALS, MONIES, MEDALS, PAINTINGS, GLASS WIN-  
DOWS, TOMBS, CHRONICLES, AND OTHER AUTHENTIC VOUCHERS.

BY AN EMINENT ANTIQUARIAN.

( Continued from Page 328, Vol. V. )

**K**ING Henry VI. (as appears by his broad seal, in Sandford) wore hair of a moderate length, and no beard or whiskers; but very broad shoes.

Elizabeth, Duchess of Exeter, who died in 1425, 4th Henry VI. (as appears by the figure of a picture of her formerly extant in painted glass at Amphill, which figure may be seen in Sandford) wore a close round caul of net-work, which just contained her hair, edged with embroidery. And her husband, the Lord Fanhop (there depicted by her) crop hair, exactly as K. Henry V. himself did.

Philippa, Duchess of York, who died 10 Henry VI. (as appears by the figure of her monument at Westminster, which see in Sandford) wore a double head-dress, flat on the crown, but crimped on both sides, reaching down (like an hood) to her shoulders, and close pinned under her chin.

K. Edward IV. (as appears by his broad seal in Sandford) wore longish hair, but no beard or whiskers.

Eleanor, Duchess of Somerset, who died 12 March 1467, 8 Edw. IV. (as appears by the figure of her picture formerly extant in a glass window at Warwick, which figure may be seen in Sandford) wore a most remarkable head-dress, round, high, and leaning back, with a short head-cloak or mantle about it, reaching only from the top of her head-dress to her ears.

Anne, Duchess of Exeter, who died 1475, 15 Edw. IV. (as appears by the figure of her picture formerly extant in a glass window at Windsor, which figure may be seen in Sandford) wore a plain head-dress, with broad long pinner ends; straight

sleeves, reaching to her wrists; laced ruffles, without plaits, turned back up her arms.

In the 22 Edw. IV. 1482, it was enacted, "that no manner of person, under the estatute of a lord, should, from that time, wear any gown or mantle, unless it be of such length, that he being upright, it should reach the middle of his thigh, on pain of 20s."

K. Richard III. (as appears by his broad seal, in Sandford) wore longish hair, but no beard or whiskers.

K. Henry VII. (as appears by the figures of his broad seal and tomb, both which may be seen in Sandford) wore longish hair, but no beard or whiskers.

K. Henry VIII. (as appears by his broad seal in Sandford) wore short cropt hair, large whiskers, and a short curled beard. Also a collar (not of S. S.) but of H. H. S.

In a picture of him in Holland's *Heruologia Anglicana*, he is drawn with his gown furred, the upper part of his gown sleeve (under his arm-pits and round his arm) bowed out with whalebone. His doublet sleeves, straight, and made open all the way from his shoulders to his wrists, but buttoned with diamonds, yet so as his linen appears. About his neck and wrists, short ruff ruffles.

In his pictures and statues at length, he seems to wear long stockings and short breeches (like modern rope-dancers and tumblers) but what there looks like breeches, as I take it, is only his hose falling down from the top of his thighs (where they are first tied up) and then turning up again to his waist (where they are tied up a second time.)

The clergy of England never wore silk or velvet till the time of the pom-  
pous

pous Cardinal Wolsey, who opened that door to pride among them, which hitherto cannot be shut.

The square cap worn by the clergy (and sometimes, it seems, by the laity in Henry VIII's time) was very different from those now worn at Cambridge and Oxford. See the pictures of More, Wolsey, Cromwel, and Cranmer, in Holland's *Heruologia Anglica*. The same fashion continued (but then indeed only among the clergy) in Queen Elizabeth's time. See the pictures of Parker, Jewel, Humphreys, Holland, and others in the same collection.

In 1542. (34 Henry VIII.) was published—"a book of the Introduction of Knowledge, the which doth teach a man to speak part of all manner of languages, and to know the usage and fashion of all manner of countries, and for to know the most part of all manner of coins of money. By Andrew Borde, London, 1542, 4to. dedicated to the Lady Mary, daughter of King Henry VIII. by an epistle dated at Montpelier, 3d May, same year.—This book is written partly in verse and partly in prose, contained in thirty nine chapters; every one of which hath in its beginning the picture of a man, sometimes two or three, printed from a wooden cut. Before the first chapter, which treats of the natural disposition of an Englishman, is the picture of a naked man, with a piece of cloth lying on his right arm, and a pair of scissors in his left hand, with a copy of verses printed under him, the two first lines of which are,

"I am an Englishman, and naked I stand here.

"Musing in mind, what rayment I shall wear.

"Before the seventh chapter is the picture of the author Borde, standing in a pew, with a canopy over it, having a gown on, with sleeves a little wider than an ordinary coat, a laurel on his head, and a book before him on a desk."

"I will tell you here how Sir Phi-

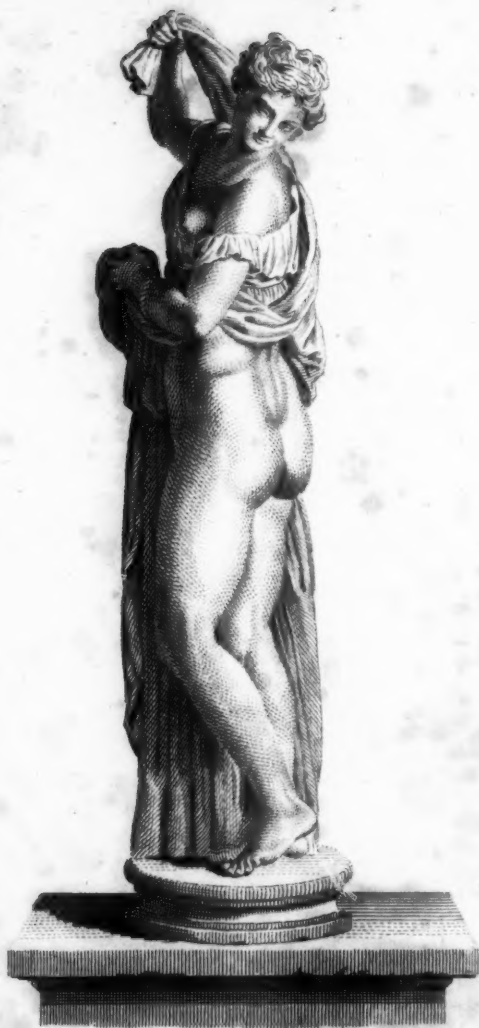
lip Calthorp purged John Drakes the shoemaker, of Norwich, in the time of King Henry VIII. of the proud humour which our common people have to be of the gentleman's cut. This knight bought on a time as much fine French tawny cloth as should make him a gowne, and sent it to the taylor's to be made. John Drakes, coming to the said taylor's, seeing the knight's gowne-cloth lying there, and liking it well, caused the taylor to buy him as much of the same cloth and price, to the same intent; and farther had him, to make it of the same fashion that the knight would have his made of. Not long after the knight, coming to the taylor's to take measure of his gowne, perceiving the like gowne-cloth lying there, asked the taylor, whose it was? Quoth the taylor, it is John Drakes, who will have it made of the self same fashion that yours is made of. Well, said the knight, in good time be it. I will, said he, have mine made as full of cuts as thy sheen can make it. It shall be done, said the taylor; whereupon, because the time drew near, he made haste of both their garments. John Drake (having no time to go to the taylor's till Christmas day, for serving of customers; when he hoped to have worn his gowne) perceiving the same to be full of cuts, began to swear with the taylor, for making of his gowne after that sort. I have done nothing, (quoth the taylor) but that you bad me do. For as Sir Philip Calthorp's is, even so have I made yours. By my latchet, (quoth John Drakes) I will never wear gentlemens fashion again.

"The slashing, pinking, and cutting of our doublets is but the same fancy and affectation with those barbarous gallants who slash and carbado their bodies, and who pink and raze their fatten, damaske, and doretto skins. I saw, in Pater-noster-Row, the picture of Francis I. King of France, drawn in full length; who was painted in a jerkin-like doublet, slashed in the breast downwards towards the belly. Which, for the curiosity

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Literary Magazine.



*Original scale.*

**VENUS CALLIPYGA.**

*Published at the Academy 1 July 1791. By C. Forster N<sup>o</sup> 41 Pall Mall.*

riosity of the workmanship, and the singularity of the habit, was valued at 200 l."

K. Edward VI. (as appears by his broad seal in Sandford) wore his hair, gown, and gown-sleeves, as his father's.

Q. Mary (as appears by the reverse of her broad seal in Sandford) wore a close head-dress or cap, with a broad, flat, long end, or train, hanging down behind. Straight sleeves, down to her wrists. At her neck and wrists, a small narrow ruff ruffle.

(To be continued.)

#### SHORT ACCOUNT OF THE STATUE OF VENUS COMING FROM THE BATH.

THIS statue, representing, as is supposed, Venus coming from the bath, or that Venus, known to the Greeks by the epithet of *Καλλιστο*, is of Grecian workmanship, and accounted remarkably fine, especially about the parts from which it derives its appellation. It is now preserved in the Farnesian palace at Rome, and is, by some, said to be the statue in the temple of Juno, the workmanship of Heliodorus, of which Pliny speaks, Lib. XXXIV. Cap. 5. where he says, *fecit & Venere[m] lavantem se*. The head of this statue, which has been thought not to belong to it, appears to be a portrait, rather than a fancy head; but it nevertheless fits well the rest of the body.

The reason why the Greeks first thought of erecting temples and images to the Goddess of Beauty, under the ludicrous name of *Καλλιστο*, may be gathered from Athenæus, who, in his twelfth book, relates with much naïveté the following story of the two maids at Syracuse: "*Ita magnopere dediti fuerunt voluptatibus*

*ejus tempestatis viri, ut ex hujusmodi causa Veneris Callipygæ statuas erexerint.* Duas elegantes formosisque filias viro cuidam rustico esse contigit, quæ contententes inter se in viam publicam accesserunt, ut quæ pulchrior es nates haberet, disjicaretur. Accedenti verò adolescenti qui patrem habebat senem seipsas ostenderunt, qui eas admiratus seniore[m] judicavit; in cujus amorem cum incidisset, venit in civitatem ac fit ægrotus: tum fratri suo qui erat grandiore ætate, rem totam declaravit. Hic etiam in agros accedens puellasque intuens in alterius amorem incidit. Hos cum pater nuptias honorificentiores hortaretur expetere, neque tamen quidpiam persuadere posset, filias ex agro patre earum non invito duxit, filiisque in matrimonium dedit. Ille igitur a civibus Callipygæ postea sunt vocatæ, velut testatur Cercidas Megalopolitanus in suis iambis hoc pacto, erat Callipygarum par in Syracusis. Ille cum amplas divitias essent consecutæ, Veneris facellum erexerunt quam appellarunt Deam Callipygam, ut narrat Archelaus etiam in iambis."

#### ESSAY ON MORALS.

OF all the different branches of knowledge to which the human mind can apply, it is evident there is none so universally interesting as that which relates to the just regulation of our conduct in life,—the study of morals. Nor can any other exertion of our intellectual faculties yield us so much pleasure and satisfaction as a well disposed mind must feel, in its researches into that which

constitutes its highest perfection, and leads to the completest happiness of which it is capable.

Were we disposed to indulge ourselves in expressions of that rapturous admiration, which is due to the importance of morality, we could not be too warm, or speak too strongly on such a subject. But in this enlightened age, a laboured panegyric on the excellence and utility of the great

laws of virtue must be wholly needless; and a formal attempt to demonstrate the propriety of attending to moral truth, would be no compliment to the persons to whom it might be addressed, as it would imply a suspicion that their judgment must be extremely weak, or their hearts extremely corrupt.

Amidst all the innumerable follies and vices of mankind, their daily language manifests a strong conviction of the importance of virtue. They who will not submit to the laws of virtue themselves, admire every appearance of it in others. The most untaught and uncivilized of the human race discover strong feelings of the amiableness of virtue, and the most polite and ingenious are distinguished by a still more refined and lively sense of the necessity of making it the constant rule of life. And how can it possibly be otherwise, so long as we retain the least consciousness of the most peculiar excellence of our rational nature? For what is it but this moral sensibility, and the powers resulting from it, that *make man, man*? What is it but this that renders us more noble than the brute? and what but this, can render us, one day, something still greater, and more noble, than any thing we can be at present? And who does not perceive, that a man possessed of every intellectual faculty in the highest possible perfection, yet at the same time destitute of moral sensibility, would be a character incapable of attracting our love, or our esteem? A Locke, a Bacon, a Newton, or even an archangel, could never merit our regard or applause, if they appeared to be only indifferent to virtue and goodness. Nay, a little reflection on the nature of our internal constitution must convince us, that a man of the most extensive talents and abilities, if he be wholly insensible to the great objects of morality must, in a just estimate, be absolutely despicable, and, at the same time, incapable of acquiring any solid satisfaction, or enjoyment, in the present state of things.

There have, indeed, in most ages, been some few persons, who have dared to dispute the obligations of virtue. But their arguments have generally been too perverse to deserve any serious confutation, or too weak to require it. Affectation of singularity, or some great corruption of heart, has appeared to be the cause of such rash and insolent attempts, and sophistry is the only means by which they have been prosecuted. But the empire of virtue is built upon a foundation eternal, and that can never be shaken. The arguments in support of virtue will stand every possible test; and they have appeared more and more forcible after every repeated trial. It is not credible that any of the objectors to the laws of virtue have been uniform and consistent in their opposition. Amidst all their efforts to ridicule or vilify it, there have been intervals when conscience has forced them to retract their impious censures; there have been seasons, when they have found themselves compelled to own the *awful* power of virtue, and have shewn that they felt it to be infinitely *lovely*. But what if it should be found, that there have been some few persons, or even some nations, so lost to the dictates of their rational nature, or in the moral sense, such prodigies, such monsters, as to be incapable of the impressions of right and wrong? would this be of any weight against the concurring sense of mankind in general, with respect to morals?—As well might the ignorance of the plowman, or the stupidity of an idiot, be urged as a demonstration of the falsehood of a mathematical theorem.

The concurring testimony of mankind to the importance and excellence of morality, gives it a just pretension to our most serious examination. It is held up to us as a point of the highest moment, and we cannot therefore, without bidding a total defiance to reason, refuse to enquire, whether or no, morality has a good and stable foundation. And if we maturely weigh the arguments by which it is

recom-

recommended, we shall certainly find it worthy of our best regards, and conducive to our principal and most valuable interests.

It may reasonably be presumed, that as the knowledge of morality is so important to mankind, the great Author of our nature must have formed us in such a manner, as to render this knowledge easily attainable. And it appears from fact, that he has made ample provision for this purpose by those moral powers and feelings, with which he has endowed us. He has implanted the principles of reason and conscience within us, and has written the grand laws of righteousness and virtue on our hearts. The signatures of these impressions are clearly visible in all, especially in early life, and in those who have not greatly corrupted themselves; and some traces of these original instructions still appear even in those, who have abandoned themselves to the most enormous vices.

The divine providence has also at various seasons, when it was most proper, raised up extraordinary persons to bear testimony to the great and weighty matters of the moral law. And thus, with respect to morals, every one may, in some sense, be said to be taught of God; and his teachings must be well calculated for the end they were intended to promote.

But it was most certainly the will of our Creator that much should depend upon ourselves. We are furnished with sufficient powers for the discovery and performance of our duty, yet our own application, and the exertion of these our natural powers, is necessary to our making any valuable attainments. Good seeds are sown in every heart; but if we neglect to cultivate them aright, they cannot produce their genuine good fruits, but may soon degenerate, and acquire such qualities as will render them not only useless, but even pernicious.

Our moral feelings, and our moral propensities, may in time be very nearly extinguished, or if not extinguished, they may however be fatal-

ly perverted. In fact, the moral feelings have often been perverted, in such degree, as has rendered them productive of more dreadful disasters than ever could have sprung from any other source. But supposing that none of our moral feelings could either be extinguished, or perverted, they are still but imperfect guides, and something farther is absolutely necessary. Reason must upon every occasion be called in, or we shall be incapable of judging in what way our particular moral propensities must be directed, and to what measure and degree they must be indulged. Were the natural and immediate feelings of our minds sufficient for our direction, reason would have been a superfluous gift. We may therefore justly conclude from our being possessed of reason, that it was absolutely necessary for the due regulation of our moral conduct, unless it can be shewn, that there is some other object upon which our reason ought to be employed,—some higher and more important object than morality. But this is impossible, and of consequence our reason ought to be consecrated to the study of every thing relative to morality, as far as our opportunities and circumstances will permit.

The necessity of this will appear, if we take a survey of the actual state of mankind. Though the great outlines of our duty are by nature imprinted on every heart, our powers are evidently so limited that none can attain a just and accurate view of the several distinct branches of moral obligation without much serious reflection. Nor is it in general sufficient for this purpose, to exercise our own reason, and to attend to the suggestions of our own minds. We must likewise have recourse to the help of others, and must endeavour to avail ourselves of their judgment and arguments, their experience and observations, from which a well disposed mind may always derive very important and useful instruction.

And, if morality be so greatly and so universally important, it must be

a dictate of reason, that we should not only study it for ourselves, but should also endeavour as much as possible, to spread a just and suitable sense of it among our fellow creatures.

No apology therefore could be necessary for offering to the public a regular and consistent scheme of morals, were it not for the numerous volumes of this kind, which have already appeared.

But though the many excellent treatises of morals, with which both ancient and modern writers have furnished us, may seem to render a new system unnecessary, there are reasons, which we doubt not, will fully justify our undertaking such a work.

We lay but little claim to novelty, in what we are going to offer; yet it may justly be presumed, that every one who has closely applied to the study of morals, will be able to state some points in a new light, and to recommend some parts of human duty, by such peculiar arguments, as may make an additional impression upon the minds of those, who, though ever so well disposed, have not been led to consider things in the same view.

Every new writer has also an opportunity of making a good use of every preceding author: and there is one circumstance that seems to render a new system greatly expedient. It is well known, that though mankind in general agree in their sentiments, with respect to the several duties of life, yet those who are inclined to the more minute researches and speculations of philosophy, have fixed upon very different principles as the foundation of morals. Some have determined, that the will of God is the only source of moral obligation. Others have assigned the natural relations of things as the sole foundation of virtue. Some have made public utility the only test of right and wrong; and others have pronounced private interest, when rightly understood, to be the sole measure and standard of our duty. And most of the writers on morals, having been

too keenly attached to one or other of these particular schemes, have omitted the arguments which arise from different schemes; in consequence of which omission, their compositions, though intrinsically of great merit and excellence, cannot be so useful as they might have been by the addition of those other arguments and motives. But we shall endeavour to shew, that all these different views and principles of virtue perfectly agree and harmonize, and greatly corroborate one another. In the prosecution therefore of our moral system, we shall endeavour to admit all the different arguments derived from each of these different and partial views of morality, and from hence we hope, that the genuine force and extent of our several moral obligations will more fully and strongly appear, and that we shall not be liable to leave out of our account any one important particular that may belong to right and virtuous conduct.

And still farther we may add, that though the laws of virtue are indeed eternally and invariably the same, yet at different times, and in different circumstances, it may be expedient to dwell more especially upon some particular points, and to exhibit such views of things as may be best suited to the actual situation and exigencies of mankind. We shall therefore carefully consider the genius, spirit, and turn of the present age. We shall endeavour always to remember what virtues, and what vices most prevail. And it will be our aim to accommodate ourselves, as much as may be, both to the taste, and to the real wants of the age, by offering such arguments as may be most peculiarly likely to make a good impression, and by insisting principally on such considerations, as may most clearly evince the impropriety and fatal tendency of our reigning vices, and most strongly recommend those virtues, which are least in fashion among us. And whilst we preserve these views, we flatter ourselves that our readers will not fail to approve and encourage our honest and well meant attempts.



# AN ENQUIRY HOW FAR INFERIOR ANIMALS MAY BE SAID TO BE ENDOWED WITH REASON.

FROM THE NATURAL HISTORY OF ANIMALS, JUST PUBLISHED.

THE inferior animals are so remarkably deficient in the reasoning and thinking powers, when compared with man, that human pride has been tempted to deny them entirely the possession of such powers. Though we find them such useful assistants, and at times such formidable enemies, we would willingly degrade them to a rank in the order of creation still lower than that which nature has assigned them. We delight to represent them as destitute of reason, and guided only by what we call instinct. We observe, that even the most sagacious among them are incapable of that variety of minute distinctions, which our reasoning faculties enable us to make:—They cannot take so full a review of the past, nor look forward with so penetrating an eye towards the future: They do not accumulate observation upon observation, or add to the experience of one generation that of another: Their manners do not vary, nor their customs fluctuate, like ours: their arts remain always the same, and are not liable either to degenerate, or to be improved: The crow always builds its nest in the same way; every hen treats her young with the same measure of affection; even the dog, the horse, and the sagacious elephant, seem to act rather mechanically than with design. From such hasty observations as these, it has been inferred, that the brutes are directed in their actions by some mysterious influence, which impels them to employ their powers unintentionally in performing actions beneficial to themselves, and suitable to their nature and circumstances.

Other opinions have, however, been formed concerning the character of the inferior animals, which are plainly inconsistent with this notion, and which would, therefore, lead us

to suspect it as false, even before entering into a particular examination of the grounds on which it stands. One of the greatest philosophers among the ancients (Pythagoras) was so fully convinced that the brutes possess the same powers of intelligence as men; that he represented them to his disciples as animated by souls which had previously acted a part in human bodies, and; for that reason, enjoined them to treat those their humbler brethren with gentleness and humanity, and to beware of ever shedding their blood. The same opinion still prevails through the East; and it has actually such influence on the manners of the Gentoos, that they will perish of hunger, rather than shed the blood, or eat the flesh of an animal.

This opinion, indeed, as well as that which degrades the brutes to the humble character of pieces of mere mechanism, may probably have originated from prejudice or careless observation. But, since natural history has begun to be more diligently cultivated, many observations have been made on the manners and œconomy of the inferior animals, which prove, that, if they are guided by instinct, that instinct is by no means a mechanical principle of action, but, in its nature and susceptibility of improvement, often approaches nearly to the character of human reason. The manners of no one species among the brutes are uniformly the same in all the individuals belonging to it. Even in performing those actions in which they are said to be guided by unvarying instinct, different individuals display different modes of conduct. It is probable, that if we were to examine their manners and œconomy with the same minute and careful attention with which we observe the conduct of our own species, we should find

find those of their actions which we call *instinctive* much more diversified than we imagine: the general resemblance, the family likeness, would, no doubt, still hold; but we should surely discover the character of the individuals to be distinctly marked, as well as that of the species. The laws of analogical reasoning do not justify the idea, that the brutes act, on any occasion, absolutely without design. On many occasions, they undeniably act with design: the dog obeys his master; he traces his footsteps, in order to overtake him: he even attempts to make returns of gratitude for the kindness with which he is treated. Others of the inferior animals behave in a similar manner. It seems, therefore, more probable, the inferior animals, even in those instances in which we cannot distinguish the motives which actuate them, or the views with which they proceed, act not altogether without design, and extend their views, if not a great way, yet at least a certain length forward,—than that they can be, upon any occasion, such as in rearing their young, building nests, &c. actuated merely by feeling, or over-ruled by some mysterious influence, under which they are nothing but insensible instruments.

The facts from which this induction is drawn, have of late forced themselves on observation, in such a manner as to give rise to a very *curious* theory\*. It has been thought better to degrade mankind nearer to the same level with the brutes, than to elevate the brutes to the rank usually assigned to mankind. The human mind has been represented as a bundle of instincts, only a little larger than those bundles of the same materials which have been bestowed on the brutes. Observing, that the inferior animals seemed, on many occasions, to act upon the same principles with mankind, and unwilling to allow that the former can act with design, the author of this theory has contrived to explain the

phenomena, by denying design to his own species.

But we will not tamely surrender our rights. It is better to share them with others, than to be entirely deprived of them. We are conscious of comparing ideas, and of forming designs. If these operations are called instincts,—very well: this is not to advance a new doctrine, but to propose the use of new terms.—Yet those already in use seem sufficiently adequate to the purposes for which they are employed. Let mankind still be allowed to reason, and to act with design; even though it must be granted, that the brutes too reason, but not so skilfully, and form designs, but designs much less extensive than those of mankind.

We not only accomplish such purposes as we propose to ourselves, by the use of such means as prudence suggests, but we are also subject to laws, by the influence of which our conduct, whatever it be, naturally produces certain effects on our character and circumstances, which we neither previously desired nor foresaw. The drunkard, for instance, sits down only to swallow a liquor of which he is fond, or to join in that noisy mirth which reigns among his fellows; but he insensibly acquires a habit which he did not think of, and by indulging in that habit, unintentionally produces very unhappy changes on his health and circumstances.—The benevolent man, in the same manner, when he interferes to relieve his brother in distress, does not probably attend to all the effects which his conduct, in this instance, is likely to produce, either to himself, or to the person whom he relieves: and of human actions in general, it may be observed, that their consequences always extend much farther than the design or foresight of the agent. Beings of superior intelligence might regard mankind as incapable of design, with just as much reason as we have to deny the brutes any guiding

\* See Transactions of the Royal Society of Edinburgh, Vol. I. p. 39, to 45.  
principle

principle superior to blind and simple instinct. We, however, are conscious of design; though our designs are commonly narrow, and our views limited: why, then, consign the inferior animals to the guidance of an unmeaning impulse? Were it proper to enter more minutely at present into a discussion of this point, it might be easy to prove, by an induction of particulars, that the brutes actually compare ideas, and deduce inferences; and when we consider their docility, and mark the variety of their manners, it appears almost absurd to deny that they form designs, and look backward on the past, and forward towards the future, as well as we.

We may conclude, then, with respect to the inferior animals, that they possess in general, the powers of perception, memory, consciousness; with various affections, passions, and internal feelings; and even, though perhaps in a meaner degree, those powers of comparing and judging which are necessary to enable an animated being to form designs, and to direct its actions to certain ends.— Their prospects towards the future are evidently very confined: They cannot review the past with such a steady eye as man: imagination is not, with them, so vigorous and active as with us, and is confined within a narrower range. But still they are not absolutely confined to present sensations; they connect some part of the past and of the future with the present. When we contemplate their manners, we behold not social intercourse regulated among them by the same forms as among us: Their characters and circumstances differ so considerably from ours, that though the great principles of right and

wrong, may, wherever they are perceived, remain the same to them as to us, yet the application of those principles to particular cases must be very different among them from what it is with us. Thus, philosophers have fancied imaginary states of human society, in which the present laws of distributive and commutative justice could not be observed\*: but even in such states of society, the fundamental principles of justice would continue obligatory, and would only be varied in their application. The brutes appear, in short, to possess, but in a more imperfect degree, the same faculties as mankind. Instinct must always be a simple principle, an original feeling; the only business of which is to rouse to action,—to call the reasoning powers to exert themselves. To talk of instinctive principles that admit of improvement, and accommodate themselves to circumstances, is merely to introduce new terms into the language of philosophy. No such improvement or accommodation to circumstances can ever take place without a comparison of ideas, and a deduction of inferences. When we consider with how much difficulty that acquaintance with the manners and customs of mankind, which we call *knowledge of the world*, is obtained, we cannot be surprised that even philosophers should be so imperfectly acquainted with the more minute particulars in the manners and œconomy of the brutes. To man their manners are much less interesting than those of his own species; and there are, besides, many difficulties to prevent us from becoming intimately acquainted with them, however earnestly we may turn our attention to this object.

AN EASY AND NEW METHOD OF PRESERVING WATER SWEET, FOR THE USE OF SEAMEN IN SEA VOYAGES, AND OF PURIFYING IT WHEN STINKING.

IT is well known that water cannot become putrid, unless it contains animal and vegetable substances; and as this is the case with all river water,

it follows that this water, which is generally used on board of ships, is subject to become putrid and nauseous, more or less, in proportion to

\* See, in Hume's *Essays*, an Enquiry concerning the Principles of Morals.

the quantity and quality of the animal and vegetable matter contained in it.

Another cause of corruption is owing to the dissolving property of water; so that it often happens, that though the casks be filled with pure spring water, yet the water, by dissolving the impurities which may be found adhering to the casks, and becoming impregnated with them, or even with the substance of the wood itself, will become putrid after a certain time.

The principal article, by the means of which Mr. Lowitz preserves and purifies water, is charcoal dust; and from a great variety of experiments, the following particulars are deduced for the practical accomplishment of an object so very important to the seafaring people.

The charcoal must be pounded very finely, and the powder must be kept clean, and as free as possible from dust, smoke, or other impurities; but the quality of the wood of which the charcoal is made needs not to be regarded, provided it be well charred.—Mr. Lowitz finds that even fossil coal, when well charred and powdered, will answer for the purpose; but he does not mean to recommend the use of it, on account of the metallic minerals which are frequently mixed with it, besides other reasons.

About three drams of charcoal dust will preserve four ounces of common river water, or will purify it when actually stinking; but if a little acid be added, then a much smaller quantity of charcoal will do.

Any of the mineral acids will produce the effect, and even some salts; but the vitriolic acid is to be preferred, principally on account of its having no smell.

In order to preserve fresh water, the casks must be previously well washed and scoured with sand or charcoal dust. After having been filled with the river water, put as much vitriolic acid into it as is just sufficient to render the water slightly acid: then add about eight pounds weight of charcoal dust to each cask; and as

the charcoal dust naturally falls to the bottom of the casks, it should be stirred with a stick at least once a-day, so as to let it come into contact with as much water as possible; and this is all that needs be done to prevent the water acquiring any bad smell or taste.

When the water is to be used, it should be filtered through a flannel bag, which must be had ready at hand, and a proper stand for it may be easily contrived. This filtration serves only to separate those finer particles of charcoal, which, by swimming in the water, give it a blackish appearance.

It is very remarkable that, if water be rendered just sensibly acid by mixing a little vitriolic acid with it, the addition of charcoal dust will remove the acidity.

In order to purify the water which is actually stinking in the casks, proceed in the same manner as in the preceding operation; viz. first, put some vitriolic acid into the cask, and then as much charcoal dust as upon trial will be found sufficient to remove the bad smell. In case that neither vitriolic nor any other acid can be had, then charcoal dust alone is sufficient to purify the water: but in this case a greater quantity of it must be used; perhaps three times as much as when the acid is employed.—This purified water must be also filtrated as above.

In this manner the operation is soon performed; ten minutes, or a quarter of an hour, being more than sufficient time for it.

To preserve the water which has been thus purified, when it is not immediately used, it must be removed into clean casks; otherwise it is apt to become putrid again in a short time.

It is almost needless to remark, that as the waters of different rivers, in different climates and seasons of the year, are impregnated with various proportions of animal and vegetable matter, so the quantity of charcoal dust which must be employed to preserve and purify them, must be more or less in proportion.

## AN ACCOUNT OF THE PHLOGISTIC AND ANTI-PHLOGISTIC THEORIES.

**I**N different periods of time, particular subjects have engrossed the attention of philosophers, whilst other branches of knowledge have been either little attended to, or entirely overlooked: and as at present the philosophical world is principally engaged in the examination of the phlogistic or anti-phlogistic system, we shall premise a short and comprehensive prospect of it, for the information of our readers, who will thereby be enabled to understand the various subjects depending upon it.

When a metallic substance is by any means calcined, as, for instance, when a piece of iron is converted into rust, which the chemists call the calx of iron, a very remarkable alteration takes place; for the piece of iron, which was hard, smooth in its surface, and of the usual well known colour, is converted into a brownish red, granulated and friable matter, incapable of malleability, of acquiring a polish, and, in short, destitute of all the essential and useful properties of iron. In explanation of the cause of this remarkable change, the philosophers of the late hundred years say, that iron is a compound of two substances; viz. an earthly and fixed one, called the calx; and another volatile ingredient, called phlogiston; and that the calcination is no more than the separation of the two component substances, viz. the escape of the phlogiston; so that after the calcination, the calx or earthly part alone remains, which possesses its peculiar properties, so very different from those of the iron of which it was one of the component substances.

The phlogiston, in the act of calcination, is supposed to be attracted by the air; and in fact the calcination cannot take place unless the calcinable metal is exposed to respirable air, or to substances which contain respirable air.

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As in the abovementioned process of calcination, one of the component substances has been separated from that which remains, it might be naturally expected that the remaining substance should weigh less than the original body or piece of iron, of which it was only a part; the fact, however, is far different, the calx being actually heavier (it is not meant in specific gravity) and larger in bulk than the original piece of iron.

This addition of weight and bulk was, a few years ago, proved to be owing to a quantity of pure air, which the calx condenses and imbibes from the atmosphere.

If this calx be surrounded by substances which are supposed to abound with phlogiston, as charcoal, and other combustible bodies, and be thus exposed to a proper degree of heat, the calx, by imbibing the phlogiston from the surrounding bodies and parting with its air, will become iron again. This operation is called the reduction of the calx.

If it be asked, what is this phlogiston, and whether it may be exhibited by itself; the answer is, that it is the inflammable principle, and that it cannot be produced by itself; but that it may be only separated from one substance, and imparted to another, in which case the former is said to be dephlogisticated, and the latter to be phlogisticated.

Now the new antiphlogistic doctrine, which seems daily to acquire additional credit and new adherents, abolishes entirely the existence, or rather the supposition of the existence of the phlogiston, and explains the phenomena of calcination and reduction, merely on the addition or privation of a proper quantity of pure air. Thus most of the present philosophers say, that a piece of iron, combined with a sufficient quantity of pure air, becomes, what is commonly known under the name of calx of iron,

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and



and that the rust or calx of iron, when deprived of its pure air, becomes iron. The necessity of surrounding the calx with charcoal or other inflammable substance, is not for the purpose of imparting the supposed phlogiston to it, but to extract the pure air from it; as the pure air, they say, is more forcibly attracted by charcoal than by the calx.

This new theory, which for perspicuity's sake is here exemplified in iron, must be understood of all the other, hitherto called, phlogistic processes. Thus in respiration, the phlogistians say, that the lungs deposit the superfluous phlogiston of the blood upon the air, which is successively introduc-

ed into their cavities by the act of respiration, and the antiphlogistians say, that the lungs only separate and imbibe the purer part of the atmosphere. Thus, also, in combustion, agreeably to the old theory, the combustibles part with their phlogiston, which is therefore called the inflammable principle; but according to the other theory, the combustible substances absorb pure air.

There are several circumstances which ought to be duly stated and examined, in order to shew the merits and objections which attend the two theories; but the limits of this publication can only allow a short view of the subject.

#### ACCOUNT OF THE NARDUS INDICA, OR SPIKENARD,

BY GILBERT BLANE, M. D. F. R. S.

FROM THE PHILOSOPHICAL TRANSACTIONS. VOL. LXXX. P. 2.

**I**T is much to be regretted, that the records of antiquity afford such imperfect descriptions of natural objects, particularly of those of the vegetable kingdom. Most of the writings of the ancients have come down to us either mutilated by the accidents of time, or distorted and corrupted by unfaithful and ignorant transcribers. There is reason to think, that the learned works upon professional subjects have been more unfortunate in these respects than works of imagination and general science, for the former are in fact more obscure and confused; and as they would be less generally interesting, and less intelligible to transcribers, they would of course be more liable to neglect and mistake. But supposing the works of Theophrastus, Dioscorides, and the other ancient physicians and naturalists, to be extant in their utmost completeness and purity, their method of describing plants and other natural bodies, was so defective, that very few of them could now be recognized. We have not only to contend with the obscurity belonging to a

dead language, in so far as the name, merely, is concerned; but it would be impossible, even in a living language, to perpetuate the knowledge of any object in nature, such as a plant, without some description to discriminate it from all others. For want of such descriptions, the knowledge contained in the writings of the ancient naturalists, could be of use only to their contemporaries and countrymen, who were already acquainted with the objects of it, and could afford no certain information to the ignorant in distant countries and future ages. Of all the ancient medicines, there is perhaps none but opium of which the identity can be unquestionably ascertained.

I have been led to these reflections by an account sent me, some time ago by my brother in India, of the *spikenard*, or *nardus indica*, a name familiar in the works of the ancient physicians, naturalists, and poets; but the identity of which has not hitherto been satisfactorily ascertained. He says in a letter, dated Lucknow,

December,

December, 1786, " Travelling with the Nabob Visier, upon one of his hunting excursions, towards the northern mountains, I was surprized one day, after crossing the river Rapti, about twenty miles from the foot of the hills, to perceive the air perfumed with an aromatic smell; and upon asking the cause, I was told it proceeded from the roots of the grass that were bruised or trodden out of the ground by the feet of the elephants and horses of the Nabob's retinue. The country was wild and uncultivated, and this was the common grass which covered the surface of it, growing in large tufts close to each other, very rank, and in general from three to four feet in length. As it was the winter season, there was none of it in flower; indeed, the greatest part of it had been burnt down on the road we went, in order that it might be no impediment to the Nabob's encampments.

"I collected a quantity of the roots to be dried for use, and carefully dug up some of it, which I sent to be planted in my garden at Lucknow. It there thrived exceedingly, and in the rainy season it shot up spikes about six feet high.

"It is called by the natives *teranchus*, which means literally, in the Hindoo language, fever-restrainer, from the virtues they attribute to it in that disease. They infuse about a dram of it in half a pint of hot water, with a small quantity of black pepper. This infusion serves for one dose, and is repeated three times a day. It is esteemed a powerful medicine in all kinds of fevers, whether continued or intermittent. I have not made any trial of it myself, but shall certainly take the first opportunity of doing so.

"The whole plant has a strong aromatic odour; but both the smell and the virtues reside principally in the husky roots, which, in chewing, have a bitter, warm, pungent taste, accompanied with some degree of that kind of glow in the mouth which cardamoms occasion."

There is great reason, however, to

think that it is the true *nardus indica* of the ancients; for, first, the circumstance, in the account above related, of its being discovered in an unfrequented country, from the odour it exhaled by being trod upon by the elephants and horses, corresponds, in a striking manner, with an occurrence related by Arrian, in his History of the Expedition of Alexander the Great into India. It is there mentioned, lib. VI. cap. 22. that, during his march through the Deserts of *Gadrosia*, the air was perfumed by the *spikenard*, which was trampled under foot by the army, and that the Phœnicians, who accompanied the expedition, collected large quantities of it, as well as of myrrh, in order to carry them to their own country, as articles of merchandize.

This last circumstance seems further to ascertain it to have been the true *nardus*; for the Phœnicians, who, even in war, appear to have retained their genius for commerce, could no doubt distinguish the proper quality of this commodity.

I am informed by Major Rennell, F. R. S. whose accurate researches in Indian geography are so well known to the public, that *Gadrosia*, or *Gedrosia* answers to the modern *Macran*, or *Kedge-Macran*, a maritime province of Persia, situated between *Kirman* (the ancient *Carmania*) and the river *Indus*, being, of course, the frontier of Persia towards India; and that it appears from Arrian's account, and from a Turkish map of Persia, that this desert lies in the middle of the tract of country between the River *Indus* and the Persian Gulph, and within a few days march of the Arabian or Erythræan Sea. It would appear, that the *nardus* was found towards the eastern part of it, for Alexander was then directing his route to the westward, and the length of march through the desert afterwards was very great, as they were obliged to kill their beasts of burthen, in consequence of their subsequent distress.

Secondly, Though the accounts of  
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the ancients concerning this plant are obscure and defective. It is evident, it was a plant of the order of *gramina*; for the term *arista*, so often applied to it, was appropriated by them to the fructification of grains and grasses, and seems to be a word of Greek original, to denote the most excellent portion of these plants; which are the most useful in the vegetable creation, for the sustenance of animal life; and nature has also kindly made them the most abundant in all parts of the habitable earth.

The term *spica* is applied to plants of the natural order *verticillatæ*, in which there are many species of fragrant plants; and the lavender, which being an indigenous one, affording a grateful perfume, was called *nardus Italica* by the Romans; but we never find the term *arista*, applied to these.

The poets, as well as the naturalists, constantly apply this latter term to the true *nardus*. Statius calls the spikenard *oderatæ arista*. Ovid, in mentioning it as one of the materials of the phoenix's nest, calls it *nardi levis arista*; and a poem, ascribed to Lactantius, on the same subject, says, *his addit teneras nardi pubentis aristas*; where the epithet *pubentis* seems even to point out that it belonged to the genus *andropogon*, a name given to it by Linnæus.

From this circumstance, Galen says, that though there are various sorts of *nardus*, the term *Napdo-caxvci*, or spikenard, should not be applied to any but the *nardus Indica*. It would appear that the *nardus Celtica* was a plant of a quite different habit, and is supposed to be a species of *valeriana*. The description of the *nardus Indica* by Pliny, does not indeed correspond with the appearance of our specimen; for he says it is *frutex radice pingui & crassa*; whereas ours has small fibrous roots. But, as Italy is very remote from the native country of this plant, it is reasonable to suppose, that others, more easily procurable, used to be substituted for it; and the same author says, that

there were nine different plants by which it could be imitated and adulterated.

There is a *nardus Assyria* mentioned by Horace; and Dioscorides mentions the *nardus Syriaca*, as a species different from the *Indica*, which certainly was brought from some of the remote parts of India; for both Dioscorides and Galen, by way of fixing more precisely the country from whence it comes, call it also *nardus Gangites*.

Thirdly, Garcias Abhorto, a Portuguese, who resided many years at Goa, in the sixteenth century, has given a figure of the roots, or rather the lower parts of the stalks, which corresponds with our specimen; and he says expressly, that there is but this one species of *nardus* known in India, either for the consumption of the natives, or for exportation to Persia and Arabia. It is remarkable, that he is perhaps the only author who speaks of it in its recent state from his own observation. It is not to be met with among the many hundreds of plants delineated in the *Hortus Malabaricus*. The *schoenanthus* of Rumphius, does not correspond with it, being only one palm in height; but he mentions having seen a dried specimen of it, of which the leaves were almost five feet high; and that Mackran was one of the countries from whence it was brought. This must be the same as that mentioned by Arrian, but differs from that of Garcias in the length of the stalks.

Fourthly, The sensible qualities of this are superior to what commonly passes for it in the shops, being possessed both of more fragrancy and pungency, which seems to account for the preference given to it by the ancients.

With regard to the virtues of this plant, it was highly valued anciently, as an article of luxury, as well as a medicine. The favourite perfume, which was used at the ancient baths and feasts, was the *unguentum nardinum*. And it appears from a passage in Horace, that it was so valuable,

that

that as much of it as could be contained in a small box of precious stone, was considered as a sort of equivalent for a large vessel of wine, and a handsome quota for a guest to contribute at an entertainment, according to the custom of antiquity.

—*Nardo vinum merebere,*

*Nardi parvus onyx eliciet cadum.*

It may here be remarked, that as its sensible qualities do not depend on a principle so volatile as essential oil, like most other aromatic vegetables, this would be a great recommendation to the ancients, as its virtues would thereby be more durable; and they were not acquainted with the method of collecting essential oils, being ignorant of the art of distillation. The fragrance and aromatic warmth of the *nardus* depends on a fixed principle, like that of cardamoms, ginger, and some other spices. I tried to extract the virtues of the *nardus* by boiling water, by maceration in wine and in proof spirits; but it yielded them but sparingly and with difficulty to all these *menstrua*.

It had a high character among the ancients, as a remedy both external and internal. It is one of the list of

ingredients in all the antidotes, from those of Hippocrates, as given on the authority of Myrepsus and Nicolaus Alexandrinus, to the officinals which have kept their ground till modern times, under the names of Mithridate and Venice treacle. It is recommended by Galen and Alexander Trallian, in the dropsy and gravel.

Celsus and Galen recommend it both externally and internally in pains of the stomach and bowels. The first occasion on which the latter was called to attend Marcus Aurelius, was when that emperor was severely afflicted with an acute complaint in the bowels, answering, by the description, to what we now call *cholera morbus*; and the first remedy he applied was warm *oilum nardinum*, on wool, to the stomach. He was so successful in the treatment of this illness, that he ever afterwards enjoyed the highest favour and confidence of the emperor.

It would appear, that the natives of India consider it as an efficacious remedy in fevers; and its sensible qualities promise virtues similar to those of other simples now in use among us in such cases.

#### ANALYSIS OF CHEMICAL OPINIONS OF THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY.

[Continued from Page 347.]

THE next chapter holds out a branch of the pneumatic theory, which many a modern chemist will be justly surprised to find in so old a writer. Before he fixes upon the ingredient, which spirit of nitre derives from the earth, he finds it necessary to lay down a general theory of acids. For this purpose he combats a received opinion, and denies that vitriolic spirit is contained in sulphur before deflagration. This combustible substance consists of two ingredients, a saline or metallic, and a purely sulphureous or phlogistic part. According to the theory, which I am not ready to adopt, lately built by an ingenious and well-informed

author, upon Dr. Priestley's new experiments on inflammable and vital air, sulphur, and other acidifiable bases will consist of phlogiston and something else. This sounds something like Mayow's hypothesis.

The saline part, which he imagines, from the attraction of sulphur for alkalis, rather to be of an alkaline nature, is that which is changed into an acid, by the conversion of its particles into sharp sword-like atoms: and the flame of sulphur is so slow and faint, because the igneous particles are checked in their motion by the interposition of a third kind of matter between them and the phlogistic particles. In the distillation of vitriol,

vitriol, he thinks the fire supplies nitro-atmospherical particles, which combine and effervesce with the metallic sulphur of the colcothar, and, by attrition, change its saline particles into vitriolic acid: moreover, the acids obtained from honey, sugar, and woods, have the same origin; their acidifying principle is derived from nitro-atmospherical particles, in the motion of which fire consists. That the acid does not pre-exist in these bodies appears probable, because powder or decoction of guaiacum, for instance, will effervesce with spirit of vitriol, but not with alkali. And if vitriol, calcined till the acid is totally expelled, be exposed to a moist air, it will be anew impregnated with acid, by the slow combination of the nitro-atmospherical spirit with the metallic sulphur of the colcothar; and it is impossible to conceive in what other way the spirit of vitriol is regenerated in the colcothar, for it certainly does not exist in it immediately after distillation, nor can it be supposed to be derived totally from the air.

The same reasoning is applicable to the production of vitriol from pyrites or marcasites, exposed to air and moisture, for the nitro-atmospherical spirit, effervescing with the metallic sulphur of the pyrites, converts the more fixed part into an acid liquor, which, as soon as it is generated, attacks the metallic particles and forms vitriol with them.

The *mechanical* part of this theory is only an awkward dress which truth borrowed from the fashion of the times.

The rust of iron, which is an imperfect kind of vitriol (has he not here anticipated the French nomenclators in their idea of an *oxide*) is produced by the nitro-atmospherical particles attacking the metallic sulphur of the iron: and the effect is the same as if the iron were moistened with some acid.

Nor is it in solids only that the power of this agent to generate acidity is manifested. Wine, ale, &c., are turned sour in the same manner; and he imagines that all fermentation consists in the effervescence of nitro-

atmospherical spirit, either already contained in the liquor, or coming from without, with salino-sulphureous particles. He adds an observation well calculated to confirm him in this opinion of the conversion of alkaline bases into acids, by the action of vital air, although we now know, that it depends on a different principle. If, says he, brimstone be dissolved in lime water or alkali, the solution, though at first alkaline, in time will acquire so much acidity as not to be able to hold the sulphur in solution. I need not add, that the precipitation here depends on the accession of an acid, fixed air.

These principles, combined with his hypothesis of the constitution of mould, afford a ready explanation of the origin of nitre, for the nitro-atmospherical spirit has only to act upon the sulphur or phlogiston of mould, and it will sharpen the atoms of the other ingredient (the immature alkali) into an acid, as in the other cases already recited. Nitre then consists of three principles; the atmospherical spirit, "the saline vehicle (or base) which this spirit carves for itself out of the earthy materials, and in which it resides, as in a proper subject—this saline vehicle, and the igneous spirit incorporated with it, constitute the acid spirit, which soon after its formation combines with the fixed salts of *earth* when brought to maturity, and forms common nitre."

The difference of acids he imagines to depend upon the difference of the salts, upon which the nitro-atmospherical spirit acts (or the basis), and the degree of force with which this spirit has acted in sharpening and attenuating their particles; yet there is still a great resemblance between all acids, for, in all particles of fire-air reside, as in a proper subject.

In the chapter on fermentation, he lays down his ideas on the elementary principles of things. He professes himself unable to comprehend what the chemists mean by their term, *spirit*: if spirit, distilled from ferment-



ad liquors, it ought to be referred to the head of sulphur or phlogiston; and corrosive and saline spirit belongs to the class of salts. Under this appellation, as well as that of *Mercury*, if to be used at all, nitro-atmospherical particles ought to be understood. Next to this sulphur (phlogiston) is the most fermentative principle, and, indeed, there seem to exist in nature but these two active substances. Sulphur is found in a great variety of states.

He thinks these two principles are very hostile to each other, and that almost all fermentation, under which term he comprehends nearly all chemical action, depends upon their collision. This idea pervades the whole chapter; but my own feelings upon reading it induce me to refer the reader to the table of contents. A minute analysis would afford neither pleasure nor information. It ought, however, not to be passed over, that he distinctly mentions the acidity of the fumes of burning charcoal, but supposes them to consist of the nitrous acid.

In treating of the cause of rigidity, he imagines it to be owing to nitro-atmospherical particles fixed among the small parts of bodies like so many wedges or spiculæ. He explains the sparks produced from the collision of flint and steel, by supposing fire-air particles, contained in the metal, to be thrown by the shock into a violent agitation: and affirms, that these bodies will give sparks in vacuo: his receiver must have been very imperfectly exhausted. The long digression concerning the cause of elasticity favours so strongly of the corpuscular philosophy, that I was glad to recollect, that it belonged not to my purpose.

The next chapter treats of the elasticity of the air: and here the reader will be pleased to see this excursive mind returning to experiment and induction, from his too bold attempts to reduce all nature under subjection to his principles.

The rising of the skin into the cup-

ping-glass is ascribed to the formation of a partial vacuum, from the consumption of the nitro-atmospherical particles by the flame; so that the air becomes not only unfit for maintaining combustion, but is also in part deprived of its elasticity, as appears further from the following experiments.

Let a lighted candle be so placed in water, that the wick shall rise about six inches above the surface: then let a tall glass vessel be inverted over it. That the water may stand at the same level within and without the inverted vessel, one leg of a syphon should be introduced into it, before it is plunged in the water: the other leg remaining on the outside, and both rising above the surface of the water; the use of the syphon is to let out the air as it is compressed by the immersion of the glass vessel; otherwise the water would stand lower in the inside: the syphon is to be taken out as soon as the air ceases to issue out through it, (which will almost instantly be the case) lest the air should flow in again. Having made these preparations, you will soon see the water gradually ascend into the cavity of the inverted vessel, while the candle is still burning.

He will not say that the rising of the water is not in part owing to the included air being less agitated and rarified at the instant the candle is going out, but it is in part also owing to the flame having consumed the nitro-atmospherical particles, so that the air is now less capable of resisting the pressure of the atmosphere, as appears moreover from the following experiment:

Let any substance, that takes fire readily, be suspended in a capacious glass vessel inverted. He uses a piece of camphor, under which a little linen, calcined to blackness, and dipped in sulphur, is laid. The mouth of the vessel is to be immersed about ten fingers breadth in water. The water within and without is to be brought to the same level as before; then, for the sake of a more distinct view, let

some

some water be taken out of the external vessel, or rather let the inverted glass cucurbit be removed, by introducing under it a small vessel, capable of containing its mouth, and then lifting it into a shallower vessel than the first, containing some water: and then let the whole stand till the air, expanded by the heat of the hand, shall have returned to its former dimensions; now let the height of the water within be marked by sticking bits of paper with paste, made of barley-flour boiled in water, to the sides of the cucurbit; which is next to be brought into the light of the sun, so that the combustible matter may be fired by a burning glass: when this is done, you will perceive the water within to descend, on account of the motion of the igneous particles, and the rarefaction of the air. On the extinction of the flame, the vessels are to be removed out of the light of the sun, that the rarified air may cool and return to its former state, when you will find the water within above its former level; and upon calculation, he finds the air to be reduced 1-30th in bulk.

After the fumes had disappeared, and the glass had become as clear as at first, he tried to inflame another piece of camphor in the same air, but in vain; "a clear proof that the combustion had deprived the air of its fire-air particles, so as to have rendered it altogether unfit to support flame."

Left any one should attribute the failure of this second attempt to an opacity of the glass produced from the fumes, he fixes a piece of paper by pasting its edges to the inside of the bell, and withdraws it after the first experiment, and then transmits the rays through the clear spot.

In further confirmation of his hypothesis, he adduces the following experiment: He ties a moist piece of bladder tight over the mouth of a vessel; and then applies an inverted glass cucurbit, including a mouse, close to the bladder. This disposition being made, the edge of the cu-

curbit will be seen after some time to adhere very firmly to the bladder, and the bladder itself be drawn up into the body of the cucurbit, just as in cupping; and this will take place while the animal is yet breathing; and by laying hold of the cucurbit, the vessel below, unless it be very heavy, may be lifted up; so that in the operation of cupping, a small animal might serve instead of fire.

The next experiment is added for the sake of ascertaining how much the air is diminished when deprived of its "vital particles," by the respiration of animals. Let a small animal be confined within an inverted glass vessel, or rather let it be suspended under proper confinement, in a glass cucurbit. The water within the inverted cucurbit is to be brought as before to the level of that in the vessel which supports it; then, for the sake of seeing distinctly the height of the water within, let some water be taken out of the outer vessel; and let marks be made by pasting bits of paper on the sides of the cucurbit. In a short time you will see the water gradually arising into its cavity; notwithstanding the heat and exhalation from the animal would seem likely to produce a contrary effect.

The diminution of bulk in the air he ascertains by measuring the space it occupied before and after the suffocation of the animal, which may be done by filling the vessel up to the marks on the sides. He finds, from the mean of many experiments, that the diminution is about 1-14th; and adds, that the animal ought always to be placed near the surface of the water.

Hence he infers, that in respiration animals derive from the air certain "vital and elastic particles." If the lungs were only to be inflated for the purpose of shaking and breaking down the blood, why should an animal so soon expire, while so much air remains, and while it is forced by necessity nearly the whole pressure of the atmosphere into the lungs?

[ To be continued. ]

## ON THE CHARACTER OF THE ENGLISH.

BY DR. WENDEBORN.

[Concluded from Page 369.]

THE fair sex in England are praised for their beauty; and I really believe, that in no country are so many fine women to be met with as in England.

It has been said, that their dress has a considerable share in this praise; and, perhaps, it may be so. The inoculation of the small-pox has, within these late years, greatly contributed to increase the number of handsome faces.

The opinion of the generality of the English, that in no part of the globe, such handsome women are to be met with as in that part of Great Britain called England, is rather a proof of their national pride. The Moorish princes prefer the beauties of their own country to all the women in the world, and think that they are no where handsomer than in Africa.

The opinions about beauty, and the judgments so differently given upon it, depend much on fancy, on first impressions made on the mind in younger days, and on circumstances; which variety of opinions, in fact, is very beneficial to the state of society.

In no country is more attention and regard paid to women, particularly the younger ones, than in England, and no where they are oftener among men, the topic of conversation. It is a proverb, that England is the paradise of women; and I really think that there is no country where their situation is more advantageous. All the civility and deference shewn to them, by men, they look upon as an homage due to them. All encomiums bestowed on them, on account of beauty and accomplishments, they are very apt to take as literally true, though many ordinary faces are to be met with, and though the praise of accomplishments is frequently offered by flattery, without any foundation. It is said, that in

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France the women give the ton in all things, and have the sway, but I am convinced, that in England their power is still greater, though they obtain it in a very different manner from those of France. The government of the house is generally left to the wife, by the husband, who readily submits to her administration; deference to the sex being inculcated into his mind from his infancy, both by his mother, and even his father, who, in nine cases out of ten, has set the example, finding that by these means, it was most easy to preserve domestic peace.

Most of those who have written on this subject, of the female sex in England, talk too generally. Their observations are commonly taken from persons in genteel life or rank, and from the inhabitants of London. But certainly a distinction should be made between the higher classes and the lower; between those who live in great cities, and those who pass their days in the country. The latter, who constitute the greatest number, have undoubtedly, in an hundred instances, the preference, in regard to moral character, above the former. They are more modest, more domestic, more industrious; they are cleanly in their persons and their houses, and even in cottages, which is not so much the case in large cities, and particularly in London. The generality of those who are styled persons of quality, or who think themselves opulent, lead an idle life, useless and tiresome, even to themselves; they are, in the present age, so little domestic, that they find it very disagreeable to stay at home; they hasten from one engagement to another, from company to company, and from card-table to card-table.

In boarding-schools, where the daughters of those are educated who can afford the expence, they frequent-

ly corrupt each other. A certain affected vivacity, liveliness, a smartness, and false wit, sometimes bordering upon pertness, a vanity in dress and fashions, are, at present, the principal ingredients of an education given to young ladies, whose parents think themselves not of the lowest class of people. Romances, which in London spring up weekly, like mushrooms, are too often their principal reading, by which means, perhaps, in six instances out of ten, both the head and the heart are corrupted.

Most young girls, particularly in London, when they are twelve years old, are well informed of those things which they would know early enough at the age of nineteen or twenty. What Horace says of the young females at Rome, fits exactly those in England: "They think on love from their tenderest years."

Dress is carried to the very utmost, and the changes it undergoes are more frequent than those of the moon; all is governed by novelty, and taste is entirely out of the question, if it be but the fashion.

Neither caricatures exhibited at the windows of print-shops, nor satirical paragraphs in newspapers, against ridiculous fashions, prove of any effect. The former are stared and laughed at, on passing them in the streets, and the others produce merely some merriment for those who read the papers, without effecting the least reformation in them whom they particularly concern.

This rage for finery and fashion spreads from the highest to the lowest; and in public places, where numbers appear elegantly dressed, it

is very difficult to guess at their rank in society, or at the heaviness of their purse. The tradesman's daughter, whose father can hardly earn the necessary expences of life, will do all that is in her power to dress when she goes abroad, as if she were in easy circumstances; and many who might by their outside appearance be taken for such as are in affluence, will be found, upon enquiry, in a state of very precarious dependence, or even of servitude.

The fame of Englishwomen for modesty and virtue, is of long standing, and though it has been, perhaps, in some instances tarnished and lost in its credit in these modern times, yet what the Rev. Mr. Madan has advanced on this point, in his book written in favour of polygamy, seems to be liable to great limitation.—

"Most certain it is," he says, "that the crime of adultery daily increases amongst us, inasmuch, that one would think many of the British ladies, once famed for their modesty, chastity, and sobriety, either never read their bibles at all, or else only that edition of it which was printed by the company of stationers, in the reign of Charles the First, (and for which Archbishop Laud fined them severely in the Star Chamber) where in they printed the seventh commandment without the word *me*, so that it stood, *Thou shalt commit adultery.*" Far be it from me to examine such assertions! I leave it to those who advance opinions of this kind to defend themselves. I am rather inclined to side with those who think more favourably.

#### ACCOUNT OF SOME EXTRAORDINARY STRUCTURES IN THE HIGHLANDS OF SCOTLAND, &c.

(Concluded, from Page 358.)

AT the time when those fortifications were reared, it is evident that the use of mortar was unknown. As it must be supposed that the build-

ers exerted the utmost of their architectural skill (so far as strength was concerned) in fabricating those structures, we cannot doubt that, as the country

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country abounded in lime-stone, had its use been known as a cement, it must have been employed in such works. This brings them at once up to a period of time prior to the Roman establishments in the northern parts of Britain. The Romans employed mortar in all their buildings, of which many remains are at present existing in those parts of the island where they are known to have formed settlements. They taught the Britons the use of that cement, of which till then, they were ignorant.

At the time of Cæsar's invasion of Britain, the inhabitants of the southern, and probably the most civilized part of the island, lived in huts constructed with turf, or with the branches of trees. Their towns or villages were nothing more than an inclosed part of a wood, surrounded by a ditch and rampart, within the circle of which they reared their huts. "*Oppidum vocant Britanni cum sylvas impeditas vallis atque fossa munitur.*" Cæsar. de Bell. Gal. lib. 5. cap. 21. Their inclosures or towns were but a temporary residence, and probably resorted to only when necessary to defend themselves against an enemy; they were so spacious as to afford security both to the inhabitants themselves and to their cattle. "*Urbium loco ipsi sunt memora, Avibus enim dejectis ubi amplum circumsepierunt, ibi casas ibidem sibi ponunt, et pecori stabula condunt, ad usum quidem non longi temporis.*" Strabo, Geogr. lib. 4. Of this nature were all the British towns in the southern part of the island, at the time of Cæsar. Such was the town of Cassivellaunus, probably a place of the greatest consideration in the island, as being the residence of that chief, under whom the whole of the southern Britons agreed to unite their forces to oppose the Romans at their second descent upon the coasts. "*Ab his cognoscit non longe ex loco oppidum Cassivellauni abisse, silvis paludibusque munitum, quo satis magnus hominum pecorisque numerus convenerit.*" Cæsar. de Bello Gal. lib. 5. cap. 21.

This *oppidum Cassivellauni* was Verulamium, the present St. Alban's (see Camden and Horsley's *Britannia Romana*). London, or the capital of the Trinobantes, was then a place of inferior note to Verulam. The Romans dignified the latter with the title of a *municipium*, while the former was simply an *oppidum*, and therefore strictly correspondent to Cæsar's general description, a portion of a thick wood, surrounded with a ditch and rampart.

If such was the appearance of London at the time of the second invasion of the island by Cæsar, which happened fifty-five years before the Christian æra, we have certain evidence, that the southern Britons had undergone a remarkable change in their mode of life, and made a great progress in refinement and civilization in the space of 107 years, which elapsed from that time to the great victory gained over the Romans by their queen Boadicea. At this latter period, Tacitus mentions London as a flourishing town, which, though not dignified with the title of a Roman colony, was a place of trade and opulence, and a great resort for merchants. "*Londinum quidem cognomento colonie non insigne sed copia negotiorum et commerciorum maxime celebris.*" *Annal.* lib. 14. cap. 33. The Britons of the south had, therefore, profited very greatly by a short intercourse with the Romans; and this progress will appear more remarkable, when it is considered, that from the time of Cæsar's invasion to the reign of Claudius, during almost a complete century, there was no Roman army in Britain, nor any station or settlement of that people in the island. The Britons, therefore, had as yet enjoyed little more than the sight of a polished and improved people. Amidst the tumult of hostilities, there was no opportunity to imitate the practices, or study the accomplishments of the people by whom they were invaded; but they saw enough to convince them of their own signal inferiority in all the arts of cultivated life, and to excite a de-



fire to imitate them in a subsequent season of tranquillity. This they obtained by the retreat of the Romans, and profiting to the utmost by those lights they had acquired, they made a more rapid advancement to civilization, than perhaps in any after period of their history. Cities were built, harbours constructed for the accommodation of mercantile fleets, and money coined for the medium of trade. The coinage of Cunobiline, the successor of Cassivellaunus, and sovereign of the Cassii and Trinobantes, from the mints of Colchester, Verulam, and London, is a proof, not only of an extensive commerce, but of very considerable advancement in the arts.

In this interval, therefore, between the invasion of Cæsar and the reign of Claudius, this period of rapid improvement, it is probable the Britons of the south first learned the art of constructing durable buildings with mortar; though we do not find from any classic author, that, before the reign of Nero, the Romans had erected any buildings in the island, which could serve as a model of regular architecture. In the fifth year of the Emperor Nero, happened that signal defeat of the Romans by the British Queen Boadicea, occasioned principally by the revolt, or, as Tacitus terms it, the rebellion of the Trinobantes. One great cause of this revolt had been the erection of a magnificent temple to the divine Claudius, which the Britons regarded as an insulting monument of the Roman power, and their own abject slavery. "*Ad hæc templum divo Claudio constitutum quasi arx æterna dominationis aspicietur; delictique sacerdotes, specie religionis, omnes fortunas effundebant.*" Tacit. Annal. lib. 14. cap. 31. That this temple was a structure of great magnitude and solidity, appears from this circumstance, that the Romans retreated to it as their last strong hold, and, for two days, defended themselves in it against the besieging Britons. "*Cætera quidem impetu direpta*

*aut incensa sunt; Templum in quo miles se conglobaverat, biduo obsesum expugnatumque.*" Ibid. cap. 32.

The Britons, prosecuting their success, attacked, pillaged, and set fire to several of the Roman forts and garrisons. London and Verulam were destroyed; and, in those two places, (a convincing proof of their magnitude and population) the Britons massacred about 70,000 Roman citizens and their allies. But these temporary successes were soon checked by a dreadful defeat of the Britons by Suetonius Paulinus, in which 80,000 were left dead upon the field of battle. From that time, the Romans advanced into the internal parts of the island, and finding themselves more feebly resisted, as their power became more known, began now to apply themselves to the civilization of the rude people whom they had subdued.

Julius Agricola, in the second year of his command, as Proprætor of Britain, A. D. 79, reduced the inhabitants of North Wales, of Cheshire and of Lancashire, to absolute subjection, and conquered the isle of Anglesey. Having sufficiently evinced his power, he tried the effect of alluring the natives to an easy submission, by giving them a taste of the enjoyments of a polished people. Towards this purpose, the Romans encouraged the Britons to build regular towns, assisted them in constructing temples, market-places, and commodious dwellings; and taught them even the use of the baths and porticos, and all the luxuries of the Roman banquets. To this precise period, we may refer the foundation of many of the towns in the west of England, which are known to have had a Roman origin, as Lancaster, Manchester, Warrington, Ribchester, Overborough, Colne &c.

At this time, therefore, A. D. 79, the Britons of the north-western parts of England had acquired a considerable knowledge of regular architecture. But all to the north of the Roman conquests, we must presume, was

in its original state of barbarism; improvement, however, must have kept pace with the advances of the Romans into the country; and it is, therefore, not difficult to mark its progress. In the year 80, we find Agricola employed in erecting a chain of forts between the friths of Clyde and Forth; and in 83, the last year of his command, he had penetrated to the foot of the Grampian mountains, in the northern parts of Angus. From this time, during the remainder of the reign of Domitian, and through the whole of the reigns of Nerva and of Trajan, a period of above thirty years, the Romans made no progress in the island. The northern parts of the province were ill defended, and the Caledonians, in that interval, recovered all that part of Scotland which Agricola had gained; for, in the second year of Hadrian, A. D. 120, when that emperor built his *vallum* across the island, between Solway Frith and the mouth of the Tyne, he considered the Roman province as extending no farther to the north than that rampart.—  
*"Murum per octoginta millia passuum  
 primus duxit qui barbaros Romanos.  
 qui dividerit."* Vit. Hadr. Hist. Aug. Script.

This interval, therefore, of more than thirty years, must have been a period of remarkable improvement to the savage Caledonians. Maintaining a constant intercourse with the Romans, not distinguished by extraordinary hostilities, and gradually regaining a country in which they found the recent works of a polished people, they could not fail to acquire much knowledge in the arts. At the time, therefore, when Adrian built his rampart, A. D. 120, we know almost to a certainty, that the inhabitants of Scotland, as far to the north as the Grampian mountains, understood and practised the art of constructing durable buildings with mortar. The forts, or castella, erected by Agricola, which Tacitus says were so strongly constructed as to resist the utmost efforts of the enemy to

take them by storm, were now in the possession of the Caledonians. The Roman castella were circular, and sometimes square inclosures, surrounded with a strong wall of stone, hewn into square blocks, and cemented with mortar. The space inclosed was sufficient to contain various buildings likewise of stone, barracks for the winter habitation of the troops, granaries for provisions, and sometimes baths. The form of these castella may be seen in the sculptures upon the Trajan column, and their construction may be learnt from Vegetius. The remains of a bath belonging to one of these castella, probably erected by Agricola were discovered, within these few years, at the village of Dalnoter, between Glasgow and Dumbarton. The Caledonians had witnessed the building of these structures, which were reared with the most perfect skill in military architecture, from materials which the country furnished in abundance.— They were now in possession of the structures themselves. It is reasonable, therefore, to conclude, that they now learnt the art of constructing regular buildings with stone and mortar, and practised it, both for the purposes of defence and habitation: because the contrary supposition would do violence to all probability.

The wall of Adrian, which was built in 120, and that of Antoninus Pius, built, as Horsley thinks, in 140, were both constructed solely of turf. But they were defended by castella, placed at intervals of various distance, according to the nature of the ground. The wall of Antoninus ran across, from Dumbarton on Clyde, to Cramond on the Frith of Forth, and was probably in the precise line of the castella, built by Agricola. It was at this period, and under the command of Lollius Urbicus, the lieutenant of Antoninus, that the Romans made their farthest advances into the island of Britain. After the erection of this new vallum, which had probably been reared on the idea that the country to the north of it

was

was hardly worth securing, Urbicus marched to the northward, and finding, beyond his expectation, that the country, especially along the sea-coast, was open and fertile, he appears to have prosecuted his conquests as far north as Inverness. For this fact, we want, indeed, the authority of any Roman historian; but the geography of Ptolemy, and the late discovered Itinerary of Richard of Cirencester, prove, beyond all doubt, that there were Roman stations in the neighbourhood of Inverness; and there is no other Roman general, but Urbicus, who, to the days of Ptolemy, is the *πρωτοτον καταστροφος*, or *castra alata* which, in the Itinerary of Richard, is termed *Ptorotone*. This, I think, there is every reason to believe to have been that fortified promontory, now called the Burgh of Moray. At any rate, it is certain, there were several Roman stations in that neighbourhood, as Tueslis, Varis, and Ptorotone, which is sufficient for our purpose. It is, then, evident, that, in the reign of Antoninus Pius, and within a few years of A. D. 140, the date of his vallum, the Romans had fixed *præsidia*, and built castella in the neighbourhood of Inverness, from which part of Scotland there was an uninterrupted military road, as appears by Richard's Itinerary, to the Land's End, in Cornwall. At this period, therefore, the inhabitants of this region of Scotland must have been acquainted, from the practice of the Romans, with the art of building with mortar. And as the structure of those hill-fortifications, demonstrates the ignorance of the builders of the use of that cement, the most complete evidence thence arises, that they were reared prior to the time above-mentioned, that is, above sixteen centuries and a half ago. But how far beyond that period we are to search for the date of those singular fortifications, still remains in doubt. All that we can, with certainty, conclude is, that they belong to a period of extreme barbarism. They must have been con-

structed by a people scarcely removed from the state of savages, who lived under no impression of fixed or regulated property in land, whose only appropriated goods were their cattle, and whose sole security, in a life of constant depredation, was the retreat to the summits of those hills of difficult access, which they had fortified in the best manner they could. As the space inclosed was incapable of containing a great number of men, especially if occupied in part by cattle, it is presumable, that these retreats were formed chiefly for the security of the women and children of the canton, and of their herds. They could be defended by a few men, while the rest of the tribe were engaged with their enemies in the field.

In the description I have given of the fortified hill of Dun-Jardel, upon Loch Ness, I mentioned a druidical circle upon the shoulder of the hill, about fifty or sixty feet below the fortification, and hinted that this circumstance might possibly afford ground for a conjecture with regard to the date of those extraordinary structures on the tops of hills.

The religion of the Druids obtained in Britain long before the period of the Roman invasion; and it was probably introduced into the island by the first colony of Celts, or Gauls, who landed from the continent. If, as is generally supposed, this island was actually peopled from Gaul, Druidism must have been the religion of its first inhabitants. I am disposed, however, to believe, that this island was inhabited of old by a race of men who knew nothing of the Druids, whose manners and mode of life were too barbarous to be compatible with that system; and who, in after-time, adopted from those Druids their first ideas of civilization and improvement. The Druids, it is well known, were a very enlightened order of men; and they had the address to avail themselves of that character of wisdom and learning, in obtaining an absolute controul, not only in matters of religion,

religion, but in the civil government of the countries in which they were established. They cultivated the mechanic arts, and even the sciences of medicine, astronomy, and geometry, with considerable success. In short, no nation, among whom that system had become prevalent, could long remain in a state of barbarism. But, from all the ideas we can form of the state of Caledonia, at the time when it was necessary to rear those hill-fortifications, there appears no probability, that the inhabitants either lived under such a government, as we know to have prevailed under the influence of the Druids, or had any acquaintance with those arts which it is certain they cultivated.

Those buildings must, therefore, have been erected previously to the introduction of the Druidical system; that is to say, in a period of time antecedent to the first visitation of this island by the Celtæ, or Gauls.

The Druidical circle upon Dunjardel lends its aid in support of this conjecture. If the fortification on the summit had been erected after the abolition of Druidism, it seems extremely improbable, that the builders of it would have neglected to employ the stones of this circle in rearing

their fortifications, (stones extremely well suited to the purpose, and quite at hand) when they have been at immense pains to carry up a prodigious quantity of stones from the very bottom of the hill for that work. It is not probable that they would have been restrained by any superstitious idea of reverence for the monuments of an extinguished religion. For Druidism, soon after its abolition, sunk into utter contempt; and the introduction of Christianity rendered the ancient superstitions impious and detestable.

That this hill-fortification was erected in the times of the Druids, I have already shewn to be extremely improbable. We must, therefore, recur to the only remaining, and the most natural supposition, that it was reared in times antecedent to the introduction of that religion. And this supposition carries the date of this structure, and consequently of all the rest of the same nature, up to a period of antiquity far beyond all historical record, and connects them with a state of society in which the arts were as imperfect, the manners as barbarous, and the condition of life as lawless, turbulent, and precarious, as among the rudest American savages.

## REFLECTIONS ON THE FORMATION AND DISTRIBUTION OF RICHES.

BY THE LATE MR. TURGOT, SOME TIME INTENDANT OF THE FINANCES OF FRANCE.

( Continued from page 328. )

THE Mandingo negroes, who carry on a trade for gold dust with the Arabian merchants, bring all their commodities to a fictitious scale, which both parties call *macutes*, so that they tell the merchants that they will give them so many *macutes* in gold. They value thus in *macutes* the merchandize they receive, and bargain with the merchants upon that evaluation. Thus in Holland they reckon by *bank florins*, which is only a fictitious money, and which in com-

merce is sometimes of greater, sometimes of less value than the coin which is denominated a *florin*.

§ 38. *All merchandize is a representative pledge of every object of commerce, but more or less commodious for use, as it possesses a greater or less facility to be transported, and to be preserved without alteration.*

The variation in the quality of merchandize, and in the different prices in proportion to that quality, which renders them more or less proper than others

others to serve as a common measure, is also more or less an impediment to their being a representative pledge of every other merchandize of equal value. Nevertheless there is also, as to this last property, a very essential difference between the different species of merchandize. It is (for example) evident, that a man who possesses a piece of linen, is more certain of procuring for it, when he pleases, a certain quantity of corn, than if he had a barrel of wine of equal value; the wine being subject to a variety of accidents, which may in a moment deprive him of the whole property.

§ 39. *All merchandize has the two essential properties of money, to measure and to represent all value: and in this sense all merchandize is money.*

These two properties of serving as a common measure of all value, and to be a representative pledge of all other commodities of equal value, comprehend all that constitute the essence and use of what is called money: and it follows from the details into which I am just going to enter, that all merchandize is, in some respect, money; and participates more or less, according to their particular nature, of these two essential properties. All are more or less proper to serve as a common measure, in proportion as they are more or less in general use, of a more similar quality, and more easy to be divided into aliquot parts. All are more or less applicable for the purpose of a general pledge of exchange, in proportion as they are the less susceptible of decay or alteration in quantity or quality.

§ 40. *Reciprocally all money is essentially merchandize.*

We can take only that which has a value for a common measure of value, that which is received in commerce in exchange for other properties; and there is no universal representative pledge of value, but something of equal value. A money of convention is therefore a thing impossible.

§ 41. *Different matters are able to serve and have served for current money.*

Many nations have adopted in their language and in their trade, as a common measure of value, different matters more or less precious. There are at this day, some barbarous nations, who make use of a species of little shells, called *couries*. I remember to have seen when at college, some apricot stones exchanged and passed as a species of money among the scholars, who made use of them at certain games. I have already spoken of a valuation by heads of cattle; some of these are to be found in the vestiges of the laws of the ancient German nations, who over-ran the Roman empire. The first Romans, or at least the Latins, their ancestors, made use of them also. It is pretended that the first money they struck in brass, represented the value of a sheep, and bore the image of that animal, and that the name of *pecunia* has obtained from *pecuo*. This conjecture carries with it a great probability.

§ 42. *Metals, and particularly gold and silver, are the most proper for that purpose, and why.*

We are now arrived at the introduction of precious metals into trade. All metals as they have been discovered, have been admitted into exchange, on account of their real utility. Their splendor has caused them to be sought for, to serve as ornaments; their ductility and their solidity have rendered them proper for vessels, more durable and lighter than those of clay. But these substances cannot be brought into commerce without becoming almost immediately a universal money. A piece of any metal, of whatever sort, has exactly the same qualities as another piece of the same metal, provided they are equally pure. Now the ease with which we can separate, by different chemical operations, a metal from other metals with which it is incorporated, enables us to bring it to a degree of purity, or as they call it, to what standard we please; then the value of metal differs only as to its weight. In expressing, therefore, the value of any



merchandize by the weight of metal which may be had in exchange, we shall then have the clearest, the most commodious, and most precise expression of value; and hence it is impossible but it must be preferred in use to all other things. Nor are metals less proper than other merchandize for becoming the universal token of all value that can be measured; as they are susceptible of all imaginable divisions, there is not any object of commerce, great or small, whose value cannot be exactly paid by a certain quantity of metal. To this advantage of accommodating itself to every species of division, they join that of being unalterable, and those which are scarce, as gold and silver, have a great value, although of a weight and size little considerable.

These two metals are then, of all merchandize, the most easy to ascertain their quality, to divide their quantity, and to convey to all places at the easiest expences. Every one, therefore, who has a superfluity, and who is not at the time in want of another useful commodity, will hasten to exchange it for silver, with which he is more certain than with any thing else to procure himself the commodity he shall wish for at the time he wants it.

§ 43. *Gold and silver are constituted, by the nature of things, money, and universal money, independent of all convention, and of all laws.*

Here then is gold and silver constituted money, and universal money, and that without any arbitrary agreement among men, without the intervention of any law, but only by the nature of things. They are not, as many people imagine, signs of value; they have an intrinsic value in themselves, if they are capable of being the measure and the token of other values. This property they have in common with all other commodities which have a value in commerce. They only differ in being at the same time more divisible, more unchangeable, and of more easy

conveyance than other merchandize, by which they are more commodiously employed to measure and represent the value of others.

§ 44. *Other metals are only employed for these uses, in a secondary manner.*

All metals are capable of being employed as money. But those which are too common have too little value in a large bulk to be employed in the current uses of commerce. Copper, silver and gold, are the only ones which have been brought in constant use. And even copper, except among people to whom neither mines nor commerce have supplied a sufficient quantity of gold or silver, has never been used but in exchanges of small value.

§ 45. *The use of gold and silver, as money, has augmented their value as materials.*

It is not possible, but the eagerness with which every one has sought to exchange their superfluous commodities for gold and silver, rather than for any other commodity, must have augmented the value of these two materials in commerce. These are only thereby rendered more commodious for their employment as tokens, or common measure.

§ 46. *Variations in the value of gold and silver, compared with the other objects of commerce, and with each other.*

This value is susceptible of change, and in truth is continually changing; so that the same quantity of metal which answered to a certain quantity of such or such a commodity, becomes no longer equal thereto, and it requires a greater or less quantity of silver to represent the same commodity. When it requires more, it is said the commodity is dearer; when it requires less, that it is become cheaper; but they may as well say, that the silver is in the first case become cheaper, and in the latter dearer. Silver and gold not only vary in price, compared with all other commodities, but they vary also with each other, in proportion as they are more or less abundant. It is notorious that we now give in Europe from fourteen

to fifteen ounces of silver for one ounce of gold; and that in former times we gave only ten or eleven ounces.

Again, that at present in China, they do not give more than twelve ounces of silver for an ounce of gold, so that there is a very great advantage in carrying silver to China, to exchange for gold, to bring back to Europe. It is visible, that in process of time, this commerce will make gold more common in Europe, and less common in China, and that the value of these two materials must finally come in both places to the same proportion.

A thousand different causes concur to fix and to change incessantly the comparative value of commodities, either with respect to each other, or with respect to silver. The same causes conspire to fix and vary the comparative value, whether in respect to the value of each commodity in particular, or with respect to the to-

talities of the other, values which are actually in commerce. It is not possible to investigate these different causes, or to unfold their effects, without entering into very extensive and very difficult details, which I shall decline in this discussion.

§ 47. *The use of payments in money has given room for the distinction of seller and buyer.*

In proportion as mankind became familiarized to the custom of valuing all things in silver, of exchanging all their superfluous commodities for silver, and of not parting with that money but for things which are useful or agreeable to them at the moment, they become accustomed to consider the exchanges of commerce in a different point of view. They have made a distinction of two persons, the buyer and the seller; the seller is him who gives commodities for money; and the buyer is him who gives money for commodities.

(*To be continued.*)

## OF THE PUNISHMENTS IN ABYSSINIA.

FROM MR. BRUCE'S TRAVELS.

**I**N Abyssinia, when the prisoner is condemned in capital cases, he is not again remitted to prison, which is thought cruel, but he is immediately carried away, and the sentence executed upon him. Abba Salama, the Acab Saat, was condemned by the king the morning he entered Gondar, on his return from Tigrè, and immediately hanged, in the garment of a priest, on a tree at the door of the king's palace. Chremation, brother to the usurper Socinios, was executed that same morning. Guebra Denghel, Ras Michael's son-in-law, was likewise executed that same day, immediately after judgment; and so were several others.

The capital punishments in Abyssinia are the crosses. Socinios first ordered Arzo, his competitor, who had fled for assistance and refuge to Phineas, king of the Falasha, to be

crucified without the camp. We find the same punishment inflicted by Artaxerxes upon Haman, who was ordered to be affixed to the cross till he died.

The next capital punishment is slaying alive. That this barbarous execution still prevails in Abyssinia, is already proved by the fate of the unfortunate Woosheka, taken prisoner in the campaign of 1769, while I was in Abyssinia; a sacrifice made to the vengeance of the beautiful Ozoro Ester, who, kind and humane as she was in other respects, could receive no atonement for the death of her husband.

Lapidation, or stoning to death, is the next capital punishment in Abyssinia. This is chiefly inflicted upon strangers, called *Franks*, for religious causes. The Catholic priests in Abyssinia, that have been detected

there,

there, in these latter days, have been stoned to death, and their bodies lie still in the streets of Gondar, in the squares, or waste places, covered with these heaps of stones which occasioned their death by being thrown at them. There are three of these heaps at the church of Abbo, all covering Franciscan friars; and, besides them, a small pyramid over a boy who was stoned to death with them, about the first year of the reign of David IVth. This boy was one of four sons that one of the Franciscan friars had by an Abyssinian woman in the reign of Oultas.

Among capital punishments may be reckoned likewise the plucking out of the eyes; a cruelty which I have but too often seen committed in my short stay in Abyssinia. This is generally inflicted upon rebels. I have already mentioned, that after the

slaughter of the battle of Fagitta, twelve chiefs of the Pagan Galla, taken prisoners by Ras Michael, had their eyes torn out, and were afterwards bandoned to starve in the valleys below the town. Several prisoners of another rank, noblemen of Tigrè, underwent the same misfortune; and, what is wonderful, not one of them died in the operation, nor its consequences, though performed in the coarsest manner, with an iron forceps, or pincers.

The dead bodies of criminals slain for treason, murder, and violence, on the highway, at certain times, are seldom buried in Abyssinia. The streets of Gondar are strewed with pieces of their carcases, which bring the wild beasts in multitudes into the city as soon as it becomes dark, so that it is scarcely possible for any to walk in the night.

TO THE PERSON CALLING HIMSELF EDITOR OF THE LITERARY MAGAZINE.

ESTEEMED FRIEND,

I like thy lucubrations much, but think thou art generally too grave; I have, therefore, selected from the works of one of thy brethren, the noted Sylvanus Urban, a most delectable story, which will, perchance, draw a smile from the countenance of most of thy readers. As friend Sylvanus hath given it in his *Historical Chronicle*, the truth of it must rest on his veracity.

I am thy Friend,

HISTORICAL CHRONICLE, JUNE, 1738.

ON September 30 last, happened a furious hurricane in the Bay of Bengal, attended with a very heavy rain, which raised fifteen inches of water in six hours, and a violent earthquake, which threw down abundance of houses; and as the storm reached sixty leagues up the river Ganges, it is computed that 20,000 ships, barks, sloops, boats, canoes, &c. have been cast away. A prodigious quantity of cattle of all sorts, a great many tigers, and several rhinoceroses were drowned; even a great many Caymans were stifled by the furious agitation of the

waters, and an innumerable quantity of birds was beat down into the river by the storm. Two English ships of 500 tons, were thrown into a village above 200 fathoms from the bed of the river Ganges, broke to pieces, and all the people drowned pell mell, among the inhabitants and cattle. Barks of 60 tons were blown two leagues up into the land over the tops of high trees. The water rose in all 40 feet higher than usual. The English ships drove ashore, and broke to pieces, were the Decker, Devonshire, and Newcastle; and the Pelham

is missing.—A French ship was drove on shore, and bulged. After the wind and waters abated, they opened their hatches, and took out several bales of merchandize, &c. but the man who was in the hold to sling the bales, suddenly ceased working; nor by calling to him, could they get any reply; on which they sent down another, but heard nothing of him, which very much added to their fear, so that for some time no one would venture down. At length, one more

hardy than the rest went down, and became silent and unactive as the two former, to the astonishment of all. They then agreed by lights to look down into the hold, which had a great quantity of water in it, and, to their great surprise, they saw a huge alligator staring, as expecting more prey. It had come in through a hole in the ship's side, and it was with difficulty they killed it: when they found the three men in the creature's belly.

### ACCOUNT OF THE WILD CATTLE, FORMERLY VERY COMMON IN THIS COUNTRY.

FROM A GENERAL HISTORY OF QUADRUPEDS.

**N**UMEROUS herds of these cattle were kept in several parks of England and Scotland, but have been destroyed by various means; and the only breed now remaining in the kingdom is in the park at Chillingham-Castle, in Northumberland\*.

The principal external appearances which distinguish this breed of cattle from all others are the following: Their colour is invariably white; muzzles black; the whole of the inside of the ear, and about one-third of the outside, from the tip downwards, red†; horns white, with black tips, very fine, and bent upwards; some of the bulls have a thin, upright mane, about an inch and a half, or two inches long.

At the first appearance of any person, they set off in full gallop, and, at the distance of two or three hundred yards, make a wheel round, and come boldly up again, tossing their heads in a menacing manner; on a sudden they make a full stop at the distance of forty or fifty yards, looking wildly at the object of their surprise; but upon the least motion being made, they all again turn round,

and fly off with equal speed, but not to the same distance, forming a shorter circle, and again returning with a bolder and more threatening aspect than before, they approach much nearer, probably within thirty yards, when they make another stand, and again fly off: this they do several times, shortening their distance, and advancing nearer, till they come within ten yards, when most people think it prudent to leave them, not choosing to provoke them further; for there is little doubt but in two or three turns they would make an attack.

The mode of killing them was perhaps the only modern remains of the grandeur of ancient hunting. On noticing given that a wild bull would be killed on a certain day, the inhabitants of the neighbourhood came mounted, and armed with guns, &c. sometimes to the amount of an hundred horse, and four or five hundred foot, who stood upon walls, or got into trees, while the horsemen rode off the bull from the rest of the herd, until he stood at bay, when a marksman dismounted and shot. At some of these huntings, twenty or thirty shots have been

\* In the addenda the author corrects this mistake, and tells us that they are very numerous at Wollaton, in Nottinghamshire, the seat of Lord Middleton. There are some of them also, he says, at Gilburne, in Craven, Yorkshire; at Lime-Hall, in Cheshire; and at Chartley, in Staffordshire, the seat of Earl Ferrers.

† About twenty years since, there were a few with black ears; but the present park-keeper destroyed them; since which period there has not been one with black ears.

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fired before he was subdued. On such occasions the bleeding victim grew desperately furious, from the smarting of his wounds, and the shouts of savage joy that were echoing from every side: but, from the number of accidents that happened, this dangerous mode has been little practised of late years, the park-keeper alone generally shooting them with a rifled gun, at one shot. When the cows calve, they hide their calves for a week or ten days in some sequestered situation, and go and suckle them two or three times a-day. If any person come near the calves, they clap their heads close to the ground, and lie like a hare in form, to hide themselves. This is a proof of their native wildness, and is corroborated by the following circumstance that happened to the writer of this narrative, who found a hidden calf two days old, very lean and very weak: on stroking its head it got up, pawed two or three times like an old bull, bellowed very loud, stepped back a few steps, and bolted at his legs with all its force; it then began to paw again, bellowed, stepped back, and bolted as before; but knowing its intention, and stepping aside, it missed him, fell, and was so very weak, that it could not rise, though it made several

efforts; but it had done enough; the whole herd were alarmed, and coming to its rescue, obliged him to retire; for the dams will allow no person to touch their calves without attacking them with impetuous ferocity.

When any one happens to be wounded, or is grown weak and feeble through age or sickness, the rest of the herd set upon it, and gore it to death.

The weight of the oxen is generally from forty to fifty stone, the four quarters; the cows about thirty. The beef is finely marbled, and of excellent flavour.

Those at Burton-Constable, in the county of York, were all destroyed by a distemper a few years since. They varied slightly from those at Chillingham, having black ears and muzzles, and the tips of their tails of the same colour; they were also much larger, many of them weighing sixty stone, probably owing to the richness of the pasturage in Holdernefs, but generally attributed to the difference of kind between those with black and with red ears, the former of which they studiously endeavour to preserve.—The breed which was at Drumlanrig, in Scotland, had also black ears.

JOURNEY FROM NEW ORLEANS TO MEXICO, PART OF A TOUR AROUND THE WORLD, BY PAGES, CAPTAIN IN THE FRENCH NAVY, KNIGHT OF THE ORDER OF ST. LOUIS, AND CORRESPONDENT OF THE ROYAL ACADEMY OF SCIENCES.

(Concluded, from Page 367.)

FOUR days after I left San Louis, I reached San Miguel el-grande; this city is large and handsome, much more so than those I had left; it is situated on the declivity of a hill. The houses, the streets, the gardens, have all a noble appearance, and announce the wealth of their inhabitants. The second day I slept in the neighbourhood of Querezano, a place celebrated for the manufacture of hats, cloths, and other stuffs. I afterwards came to San Juan del Rio,

a pretty city, of a middling extent; it is well inhabited, and watered by a fine river, which is bordered by trees and walks. This country is well cultivated, extremely populous, and full of large cities. Woods are scarce there, and also very disagreeable, except some few scattered trees by the sides of the rivers and brooks. The trees are principally Barbary figs, from twenty-five to thirty feet high. After I had passed San Juan, I met with nothing but high mountains,



tains, and some large villages, pretty well built, which, however, indicated our being near a large city. At last, on the 28th of February, after having travelled one hundred and fifty leagues, due south from Sartilla, I discovered from the heights a large lake, in the middle of which, at about a league's distance, appeared the city of Mexico, like an immense mass, connected with the land only by the causeways which lead to it. At the foot of the mountain, on the border of the lake, is a town called *Nuestra Señora de Guadalupe*, which would pass for a little city in Europe. There is here a fine aqueduct and church, both, as well as the whole kingdom, dedicated to the same lady. They go from hence to the city by a fine causeway, very well kept up; it is at least a hundred feet wide, and a league long. I remarked some arches at different distances, designed to give a free course to the waters of the lake, which are brackish. Five other causeways also communicate, on different sides, with this great city, which is about six leagues round, and only defended by barriers. The lake serves as a fortification, for it is impossible to pass it by fording, on account of the mud, and there is not wood enough in the country to build a sufficient number of boats. The streets are almost all straight and broad, they have their names put up, and each house is numbered, which is of great use to strangers. There are public gardens, fine walks, and large and handsome inns, as there are in all the towns near it; but they are not very commodious, having neither chambers, furniture, or provisions. The houses are handsome, and have three or four stories. The cathedral, the viceroy's palace, and the remains of the palace and baths of the Mexican emperors, occupy three sides of the principal square. These attract the curiosity of strangers, as does the mint, the court of which place is constantly full of ingots, piled on each other, which are brought hither to be weighed and assayed. One fifth part is

retained for the king's use, for the privilege of working the mines, which in general belong to individuals.—The *Baratillo*, a kind of exchange, merits the attention of the traveller, by its regularity and riches. The same regularity appears in the vaults, which serve as the markets for flowers, fashionable wares, sweet-meats, toys, and cloathing.

The Indians pursue the arts of statuary and painting with success, which is very conspicuous in their churches. Working in gold is one of the principal trades in this city, and their productions, although massy, shew a taste, and are well finished. Silver is employed here to an infinity of purposes, particularly in the churches, which exhibit prodigious riches. I was able to form an idea of this, on the anniversary on which they celebrate the conquest of Mexico. On that day, every individual exhibits his most valuable effects on the outside of his house, and it would be difficult to determine the total value of the riches thus exposed. They carry their pomp to such a height, that they use silver instead of iron for their carriages and horses. The richer inhabitants, both Creoles and Europeans, who have not the rage of visiting Europe, live here in great splendor. All fashionable cloathing is very dear; but a plain dress and provisions are cheap; for the Indians think nothing of bringing provisions from all parts to this great city, at a very low rate. Thus, by their industry they avoid that indigence into which the lower order of Spaniards in this country fall. For in proportion as the principal inhabitants are rich, and at their ease, the rest are poor. We may form some idea of the wealth of this city, by its luxury, the construction of the houses, the moveables, the number of domesticks and carriages, drawn with four or six horses; but at the same time, the poverty of the lower order is extreme. Under a cloak of patch-work, they have perhaps neither breeches nor shirt. The women

are in as bad a situation. Besides which, debauchery, drunkenness, gaming, and cock-fighting, are the occupations of the lower order of people of both sexes.

The Mexicans call the northern savages by the name of *Mecos*; they never speak of them, but with the greatest demonstrations of fear; and it is among them the most opprobrious epithet, to call any one Chychymeco. What can we conclude from this? Are the Chychymecos a distinct people, and more ferocious than the Mechos? or is the addition of Chy chy meant as a term of reproach to the Mecos? The savages to the northward of this kingdom, are not so docile as the Indians were formerly. The Spaniards engage and pay these people very handsomely as mercenary soldiers. They have just dispatched some of these troops to the province of Senora, to open a communication with Matanchel, and other ports, at which they embark for California, and with some mines newly discovered at *Serro Prietto*.—This will augment the limits of the kingdom, already very extensive. Its limits, which are not fixed, the quantity of great cities, the number of its inhabitants, its fertility, mines, and other rich productions, have given me a high idea of it. But as a traveller, and having an opportunity to see but a part of it, I have only gained a very imperfect knowledge.

While I was at Mexico, the Inquisition, which is very severe, caused many persons to be publicly whipped, among whom were two women. They were accused of inflicting wounds on their enemies by a kind of invocation, and by wounding the correspondent parts of a doll, which they kept for that purpose.

These women carried these dolls, hung round their necks; the other criminals had the nature of their crimes written on a kind of mitre, which was on their heads. This whipping is only a prelude to their

punishment, and is always inflicted as soon as the criminal is found guilty, and before the final judgment is pronounced. The chastisements of the Inquisition are looked on with veneration, as agreeable to God. I remarked in the Spanish catechism, among the number of works of charity, an injunction not to lead sinners in the right way; but *to chastise those who are in error*.

I found during the first days of my residence here, the air mild and fresh; but afterwards it seemed to me to be unwholesome, and although moist, was very sharp, the lake being situated on high ground. I was much amused during my residence in this city, enjoying all the conveniencies of life which this place affords. I eat wholesome food, roots, garden stuffs, and some European fruits, which are as plenty as in Europe, and as good as those of America. I often took a refreshing drink, made of water and the flour of Indian corn, boiled until it comes to the consistence of chocolate; they call it *atotté*. I visited all the curiosities, the churches, palaces, public walks, the public gardens of Almeyda, the gardens and aqueducts of Tacuba.

The time of the departure of the galleon for Acapulco was drawing near, being generally between the 20th and 30th of March; but I was still waiting for my effects, which I had consigned to the care of the Franciscan. Twenty days after my arrival at Mexico, I received letters from Queratans, that my religious carrier had fallen sick, and that I could not have them until he recovered. As I could not defer my departure, for fear of missing the galleon, I determined to leave them. I have since written to a merchant to sell them, and to give the produce to my Indian friend at San Antonio. I was a little angry with the priest for his negligence, but was obliged to pursue my journey.

EXTRACT

## EXTRACT FROM SIR GEORGE ROOK'S JOURNAL. ANNO 1762

October 11. **W**E sailed above the town of Vigo, and came to an anchor in ten fathom water, at ten o'clock in the afternoon; I immediately called a council of general officers to consider and resolve on a disposition for attacking the enemy both by sea and land.

12th. At break of day this morning I removed, and hoisted my flag on board the *Somerset*. The wind being at W. S. W. promised a favourable opportunity of attempting the enemy, according to the resolution of yesterday. His Grace the Duke of Ormond used great diligence in disembarking the troops, and landing them in a bay, on the south shore, about four miles to the eastward of Vigo, and ordering the grenadiers to march, under the command of my Lord Shannon, towards the fort on the south side of Ronondello. At nine o'clock I made the signal to weigh, which was accordingly done, the line of battle formed, and the ships going in upon the enemy, but falling calm, the van of our line was forced to an anchor within shot of the enemy's batteries, as the rest of the ships did in their order at one o'clock. Captain Jennings came aboard me from Vice Admiral Hopson, to inform me that the passage of the boom was extremely narrow; that both sides were well fortified, and that, in all probability, the first ship that attempted it would be lost; and desired I would come on board him and view the place. Upon which I immediately went on board him, and the more I looked, the more I liked it, for I saw the passage was half a mile wide, so that it was impossible a boom of that length could consist of any strength. I saw the batteries on the larboard side were open, and not so many guns mounted on the starboard side as was reported. I saw the enemy had not made a disposition of their ships for a vigorous defence, but that they were in a consternation and confusion, so that I

ordered Mr. Hopson and the rest of the officers to execute their orders, and do their duty. At two o'clock in the afternoon, Vice Admiral Hopson, with the ships next the enemy, slipped their cables, and run in upon them. Mr. Hopson, being the headmost ship, run through boom without a stop, but the rest of the ships, of his division, stopped, hung in till they cut their way through; and as soon as they got through, the enemy deserted their ships, setting some on fire, and running others on shore.

The *Torbay* had very like to have been burnt by a fire-ship of the enemy, who would have certainly done the execution had she not blown up. This accident was occasioned by the *Torbay's* going too far in before she anchored; for my orders were, that none of our ships should go within the enemy to board their ships, by either of which they might possibly get an opportunity of burning ship for ship, which would have been a better bargain than I intended them, but by the fire-ship blowing up, and by the exemplary bravery and diligence of Captain Leake, his officers, and men, the fire was extinguished, and the ships wonderfully preserved. The attack was made with as much spirit and resolution as ever I saw, and the enemy's defence was as mean, except two or three ships, who acquitted themselves honourably. Mons. Chateaufrenard, did not behave very well, for he hardly fired his guns once before he set his ship on fire, and run away as fast as he could.

What facilitated the reducing the fort on the starboard side was, the good conduct of our forces, who continued to attack it by land at the same time our ships poured in their broadsides upon it; between which the enemy was in such a consternation that they surrendered at discretion in less than a quarter of an hour. I sent a message

to his Grace the Duke of Ormond, with my humble opinion, that if he would please to march the forces on to Ronondello, he might probably find a considerable quantity of plate and other rich goods, upon which his Grace continued his march thither.

This ends this glorious day, to the eternal honour of her Majesty and our country, and with very little loss sustained, though some of our ships had like to have come to a misfortune by the enemy's burning ships driving with the tide of ebb and an off-shore wind upon ours, that some of them were forced to cut two or three times from their anchors to save themselves, so that had I, as I was advised, run into the Ronondello with the whole squadron, we must have been in a huddle, and in all probability, burnt altogether, by which we should have paid too dear for our victory. That I

do set it down for a maxim and rule, without exception, in our sea service, that a huddle is a thing most to be apprehended and avoided.

13th. At break of day, this morning, I went up to Ronondello, and gave the necessary orders for securing the ships of war prizes, that were afloat, and their stores, and for getting off those that were on shore with any hopes of their being saved, to get out the brass guns of those that were lost, and so preserve the goods of the galleons, as well of those that were ashore, as those afloat, from any kind of embezzlement, and that all the plate that could be found in the bottoms of the burnt galleons might be preserved and secured for the use and service of her Majesty.

I was all this day on this business, and returned late at night aboard, being very much indisposed with sharp symptoms of a fit of the gout.

ON THE USES THAT MAY BE MADE OF COUTCHOU, ELASTIC GUM, OR INDIAN RUBBER, IN ARTS AND MANUFACTURES, WITH AN ACCOUNT OF THE MANNER OF OBTAINING AND MANUFACTURING IT.

THIS substance, called *coutchouc*, is denominated *elastic gum*, or *elastic resin*, by philosophers in Europe; but it is now generally known in the shops by the name of *Indian rubber*; a substance that few of our readers are not acquainted with. It is a firm, tough, pliable substance, greatly resembling some kinds of leather; but it possesses a degree of elasticity that cannot be equalled by any known substance in nature. It admits of being stretched out in every direction to an astonishing degree; and when the distending power is removed, it recovers its former shape and appearance. It neither can be dissolved in water, in ardent spirits, in acids, nor alkaline liquors, in the ordinary state of our atmosphere. Oils, in some measure, act upon it; but the vitriolic æther is the only complete solvent of it that is as yet known. It is inflammable, and burns with a clear

steady flame, emitting then a slight smell, not at all disagreeable. When exposed to a cold air, it is more hard and rigid than under a milder temperature, but it neither becomes fluid, nor loses its elasticity, till it is exposed to a much more intense degree of heat than is ever experienced in any climate on the globe. It may, however, be melted by a very intense degree of heat; and then it assumes a thick viscid appearance, like some kinds of semi-fluid oils. And having once been reduced to that state, it cannot be again made to acquire its former consistence or elasticity.

This substance is now well known to be the inspissated juice of a tree. The natives in those regions where this tree abounds, extract the juice by making longitudinal incisions in the bark. It bleeds freely, and the juice, in a thick state of semi-fluidity, is collected into vessels placed to receive

ceive it at the bottom of the tree. It is then, by means of a brush, spread upon moulds prepared for the purpose, and suffered to dry in the sun, or before a fire, which, by evaporating the moisture, soon brings it to the state in which it is sent over to us. By adding successive layers above each other, it may be brought to any degree of thickness wanted; and by varying the form of the mould, it may be made to assume any shape or appearance you wish; which shape, as has been said, it will ever afterwards retain, if no distending force be applied to alter it.

From this simple detail of facts, it is easy to see, that the uses to which this substance might be applied in arts and manufactures are innumerable, and such as can be effected by no other known substance in nature. Yet so blind have mankind hitherto been to these advantages, that no attempts have been made in any accessible region where extensive manufactories could be established, either to cultivate the tree that produces it, or to induce the natives to send the juice in its fluid state to Europe, where it could be properly manufactured. All that has been done is, to suffer the natives to mould it into the form of a small kind of bottles, which is found to answer some purpose among themselves; and these, when brought to Europe, are applied to scarcely any other use than being cut to pieces for the purpose of effacing marks made upon paper by a black lead pencil, or that of idly amusing children by stretching it out, and observing how perfectly it again recovers its pristine form, after having been distended to a great length in any direction. We amuse ourselves with the phenomena without profiting by it, as children used to be amused with the attraction of amber, before the phenomena of electricity were explained; but it appears that it might be applied to a variety of useful purposes.

1st. This substance so much resembles leather, that it naturally occurs, that it might be employed for

the purpose of making boots. These would not only admit of being made of the neatest shape that could be imagined, but also, by being impervious to water, or the other corrosive liquors above named, would be sufficient to protect men from wet, though standing in water. For seamen, fishermen and others, who are by their business obliged to wade in water, such boots would be of the greatest utility. The feet and legs might thus be protected from the action of even acids or alkaline substances themselves, wherever that should become necessary.

2d. *Gloves* of this substance would be so soft and pliable, as to allow the fingers perfect freedom of action, and in those kind of businesses that require artificers to put their hands among acids or corrosive liquors, they may become highly convenient.

3d. *Caps*. The uses that might be made of this substance for defending the head from wet, are infinitely various, and might prove highly beneficial. A thin covering of this substance might be made for travelling hats, which, without adding any sensible weight, would be perfectly impermeable by wet of any kind. Every other kind of covering for the head, might be thus rendered water tight, merely by giving them a slight coat of coutechouc, which would in no sensible degree alter their other qualities. Bathing caps in particular, could thus be made extremely commodious, and at a small expence. This could be done, by covering with a coat of coutechouc an elastic stocking cap, which, merely by being pulled tight over the head, would embrace every part of it all round, so as to prevent the entrance of water. The stocking and the covering being equally elastic, they would contract and expand together without any sort of difficulty.

4th. *Umbrellas*. Neck-pieces of silk, or other materials, cloaks or travelling coats of any sort, that should be judged proper, could thus



be rendered perfectly water tight, without destroying their pliability in the smallest degree. It would only be necessary to cover them with a coat of this soft varnish after they were made, so as to close up the seams. Buckets too, all of canvas, or any other cheap substance, might be made water tight and incorruptible, by merely covering them with this matter. Vessels also for holding water and other liquors, that would not be liable to breakage, might thus be made of any size or shape at a small expence. In short, it would take too much room to attempt to enumerate half the uses that might be made of it in the household way.

5th. In the army and navy, its uses would be still more numerous and important. *Tents* are an article of very great expence: the canvas for them must be of the very best quality and closest texture; and, after all, they are seldom proof against continued rain. At any rate, the vicissitudes of weather soon rot the canvas, and make a new supply in a short time be necessary. Were these tents covered with a coat of this substance, the entrance of rain through it would not only be altogether precluded, but also, the very wetting of the canvas itself would be prevented, and of course its durability be augmented to a tenfold degree. On the same principle, the sails of a ship would not only be made to hold the wind in the most complete manner, but by being covered by a thin coat of it on both sides, the sailcloth itself could never be wetted, and of course, its durability be augmented, while its flexibility would not be diminished. Other uses to which it could be applied in the army and navy, are so numerous, as not to admit of being here specified. It is only necessary barely to mention, that on a military expedition, to have a vessel capable of containing fluids, which, when empty, admits of being wrapped up like a handkerchief and put into the pocket, might on some occasions be of inestimable value; and the same at sea.

6th. *Aerostation* is now nearly at a stand; but it is wonderful that no one ever perceived the use that might have been made of this substance for that purpose. No kind of silk, or other light substance, could ever be found, that possessed the smallest degree of elasticity; by consequence, when they ascended into the higher regions, the expansion of the gas was in danger of bursting the globe; it was therefore necessary to leave it open below to guard against that accident. A globe of coutchouc would have possessed the quality here wanted; it would have expanded as the circumstances of the case required; and while it was perfectly tight, to prevent the involuntary escape of the smallest quantity, it would have adapted itself in size to every variation of circumstances. It is true, the retentive power of this substance, when very thin, has never yet been ascertained by experience; but there is reason to believe it is very great.

7th. As this substance is inflammable, and burns with a bright flame without requiring any wick, it might be employed perhaps with great economy as torches or flambeaux. Solid balls have also been made of it, that are light, and of an amazing degree of elasticity; but what useful purpose could be made of these, does not at present appear. It might also be moulded into the form of riding whips, and would probably answer that purpose admirably well; and after they were wore out, they might be employed as torches.

8th. As a material for surgical purposes, it might be employed on many occasions. *Catheters* have already been made of it, after having been dissolved in æther, that have been found to answer the purpose wanted, and to occasion much less irritation in the parts than those of any other sort that have yet been tried; but the great price, when thus manufactured, prevents them from coming into general use. The little bottles, when applied to the breasts of women distressed with sore nipples,

can be so managed, as to occasion a more gentle suction than can be effected any other way, and have therefore afforded very great relief. In short, the variety of uses to which they might be applied, as bags for injecting or for suckings, are too numerous to admit of being here so much as pointed at.

9th. *Elastic springs.* In all cases where a spring is wanted to act by its *contractive* power, no substance can be conceived more proper, than that of which we now speak, especially in cold climates; and there are innumerable cases in which it might be employed in this manner with the happiest effect, in various kinds of machinery.

10th. It is many years since Dr. Bergius, at Stockholm, made some experiments on this substance in Papin's digester; by subjecting it in that way to an intense degree of heat, it is said to have been converted into a hard, elastic, horn-like substance. I have not heard that these experiments have been repeated; but if, upon farther trial, this should be found to be invariably the result, it would extend the utility of this substance far beyond the limits we have hitherto thought of; but in the state of uncertainty that at present prevails on that head, it would be improper to say more.

Geographical globes are at present an article of great expence, especially when of such a size, as to admit of exhibiting a tolerable view of the earth's surface. These could be made of coutechouc of any size required, at a very moderate expence. The savages of America, whom our philosophers represent as destitute of every mental endowment, will teach us the way of proceeding.

The little bottles we import from thence are formed upon moulds of clay dried in the sun. When the coutechouc has hardened on the surface by the process already described, a little water is introduced at the mouth of the bottle, which gradually softens

the clay, and in time allows it to be washed entirely out of it. A globe of clay might be easily moulded of any dimensions required, leaving at one of the poles a small protuberance for a little neck. This ball, when dry, might be covered with coutechouc till it acquired the thickness required; and for the purpose here wanted, this might be very thin. The clay might then be washed out, so as to leave it empty.

It is not much less than sixty years since Mr. de la Condamine first made known to Europeans this singular substance, which possesses qualities that obviously render it one of the most useful bodies that hath ever come to the knowledge of man for many important purposes in life; yet the culture of the plant which affords it, has been till this moment entirely neglected by every European nation.

The tree which yields this juice is large and stately, its trunk is usually about sixty feet in height, and from two to three feet diameter. It grows naturally in Brazil, in French Guiana, and in several other provinces of South America, and also in China, as it is supposed.

It is called by the natives *Hevea*, and Mr. Aublet has preserved that name. He calls it *Hevea Guianensis*. It is the *Pao Springa*, aët Paris, an. 1761, *Jatropha solis ternatis ellipticis integerimis subtus canis longe petiolatis*. Lin. Its seed is a nut, of a pleasing taste, very much resembling that of a filbert, and much esteemed by the natives. The tree grows very freely, and might doubtless be easily reared, were seeds brought hither for that purpose, either in some of the rocky parts of our West India islands, or the Cape Verd islands, or along the coasts of Africa, where there are such extensive tracts of uninhabited country laid waste by the depopulation that our destructive trade in slaves occasions. What a difference would there be in the state of the inhabitants of that unhappy country, were they

to be taught to cultivate the arts of peace, and to enrich themselves by industrious labour, instead of those cruel wars fomented by our miserable trade in slaves! Could this juice be

had in abundance so near to Europe, it might be sent hither in its fluid state, in close casks or bottles, so as to be here manufactured for the purposes it were fitted to answer.

## ESSAY ON THE ANCIENT NAVIGATION OF THE VENETIANS.

[Continued from Page 353.]

IT is my firm opinion that our ancestors were deeply versed in arithmetic, which being nothing more than geometry expressed in figures, might easily serve them for finding out the sines and cosines of the rhombs of the wind, which is alone obtainable by extracting the roots, establishing as the basis the theorem of the square of the hypotenuse being equal to the two lesser sides of a rectangular triangle. It now remains to examine what use the ancient Venetian navigators made of it, and how, with the aid of such invention, they resolved the problems of navigation.

The *martilojo* of the ancient Venetians, or their rule of navigation, was composed of four parts. The first is called going large, the second going right a-head, the third returning, the fourth advancing on return. The sines and cosines being found and expressed with the roots above explained, served only for the exercise of the two first parts; the other two are founded on a more complex theory, which I shall treat of after I have demonstrated the use of the two first parts of this ancient nautical science, so much more to be admired on account of its simplicity.

The ancient navigators, who made no use of the latitudes, and much less of the longitudes, in their calculation of voyages, were not acquainted with any other division of parts except that of miles. They always supposed the hypotenuse, or radius, divided into one hundred miles; and therefore the roots themselves expressed miles only. Admitting this, they proceeded in their calculation in

the following manner. In a rectangular triangle, corresponding with any rhombo, or quarter of a wind, they took for the line of the wind the hypotenuse, the which, being known for the measure of the voyage, computed with the proportion of the roots corresponding with the sines and cosines, the lesser sides of the triangle were also found.

But why rather make use of the divisors than the sines; and why in an inverse order? The reason is plain and easy. The cosines are in an inverse ratio of the sines; and reduce the whole to that degree of clearness that every capacity can comprehend it.

Such was briefly the nautical doctrine of our ancient navigators. If, nevertheless, there was no positive proof existing to convince us that the practical part of trigonometry was known to them long before the time of Regiomontanus, reason alone would sufficiently persuade us. I here appeal to the tribunal of reason, and ask the enlightened Toaldo if there is the least probability that a German traveller, a mere bird of passage, should have taught the Venetians this part of science, and shewn them the use of it. No nations in an instant become masters of a science, which is sufficiently exemplified in the recent instance of Russia. New doctrines always meet with obstacles and opposition. How was it possible that the application of trigonometry to navigation should in a moment spread itself among the vast number of captains and pilots, so as to become common in every part? Would it not be more reasonable to suppose that a single

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gle man should have learned it of a nation, than that a nation should have learned it of a single man? These are not vain discussions, but the dictates of good sense and reason.

Besides, this question is decided by a fact. The chart of Bianchi is undoubtedly anterior to the time of Regiomontanus. As appears by the description, it was drawn in the year 1436. *Andreas Bianchi, de Venetiis, me fecit. MCCCCXXXVI.* The short and confused manner with which the principles and rules of trigonometry applied to navigation are explained in this chart, proves that this doctrine was universally known among the pilots of that age. To enquire at what precise epocha the Venetians began to know and make use of it would now be a useless labour. For my part, I shall always think, until I have convincing proofs to the contrary, that they inherited it from the Romans, or rather from the ancient Greeks.

I need not be told, that without the use of the compass it is not possible to know the course of the winds, on which all trigonometry applicable to navigation is founded, because, after all, the time in which they began to use the sea compass is uncertain; besides, is there any one who is ignorant that the Greek and Roman navigators were acquainted with the smallest divisions of the winds, to each of which they gave distinct and proper names? Now, if they knew them by their names, why could they not describe them on a card? We know that the ancients had great knowledge in geography; we know also that they had measured some distances at sea with great correctness. In the time of Eratosthenes, cited by Pliny and Strabo, that part of the Mediterranean which is between the island of Rhodes and Alexandria, in Egypt, had been measured. This is by no means a small distance, but it is very exact. The ancient Greeks, who probably measured it by the run of some ship, found it to be 3250 stadia, that is about 407 miles. The

Romans had also measured several other distances on the sea, taking for their fixed points some promontory or port, the most celebrated in Africa or Italy. This we learn from Pliny and Strabo.

These distances, measured by the ancients, are found very just, by comparing them with the modern measurement; from this I draw two conclusions, first that they had very exact methods to verify their reckonings, and that it was highly expedient for them to attend to these methods in their navigations. It is, therefore, ridiculous to believe that men who knew so well how to trace out a plan of the earth, and were accustomed to do it, were unable to trace out those distances by sea which they had actually measured.

Vitruvius informs us what methods the ancients made use of to measure distances by sea. They used to fit to the sides of their ships certain little wheels, furnished with small wings, which, in turning, dipped their extremities in the water, and the number of evolutions made by these wheels determined the distance. But for to make this method effective, it was necessary to use vessels with oars, for otherwise, if they traversed, this would be subject to error, if not impracticable. We are not informed by what method they distinguished the points of the wind's direction, but they certainly had one; whether it was founded on astronomical knowledge, or by some kind of compass.

With respect to our old navigators, it seems agreed that they were acquainted with the compass before the year 1300, the period at which this invention is supposed to have been found out: the proof of this is in Sanudo, who wrote about that time, and speaks of the direction of the magnet, or load-stone, towards the Arctic pole, as a thing then quite notorious and common. "*La Calamita attrae il ferro perche in questa reside in modo speciale la virtu del polo Artico suo principio.*" The magnet, or load-stone, attracts iron,



because it possesses, in a peculiar manner, the property of the Arctic pole.

If the science of navigation among our ancestors had been founded on the direction of the compass, it would have been very uncertain and erroneous; the compass, we well know, being subject to great variations. I do not speak of those which are local or momentary, and which have little or no influence on navigation, but only of the constant variations, or rather of the declination. Every one knows the common opinion that the needle always points towards the north; yet its direction by no means points exactly thereto, but only nearly so. The north point of the compass is not the north pole of

the world. And this variation may, in great distances, produce very essential consequences. The basis of the art of navigation among our ancestors would, according to this system, then be erroneous, and their hydrography consequently imperfect and incorrect. Nothing is further from the truth.

For they also knew that the needle declined from the true pole of the earth; and it is a real and very great prejudice to think, that George Hartman, of Nuremberg, was the first who discovered the declination of the needle. He had the happiness to be the first who made use of a corrected needle, in the construction of solar quadrants. But before his time the declination of the needle was known.

[ *To be continued.* ]

# STATE OF ARTS AND MANUFACTURES AT BARCELONA, IN SPAIN.

FROM TOWNSEND'S TRAVELS.

THE industry which every where appears in Catalonia, seems to act with concentrated energy in Barcelona. Early and late, not only is the hammer heard upon the anvil, but every artist is seen busily employed, each in his several way adding to the general stock.

Two considerable trades in Barcelona, are the taylors and the shoemakers, who are employed in cloathing the army, not only in Spain, but over the whole empire. It is curious to observe, that as Scotland is remarkable for breeding gardeners, Ireland chairmen, and Switzerland soldiers, so Catalonia is distinguished all over Spain for shoemakers and taylors.

Amongst the more considerable trades are the silk-weavers, cutlers, armourers and braziers, carpenters, cabinet-makers, turners, with fringe-makers and embroiderers. I was particularly struck with the gunsmiths, who appear not only numerous and diligent, but uncommonly dexterous in the handling of their

tools. The turners are more than dexterous, making one foot upon occasion serve the office of a hand to guide the tool, or to fix the popel-head. The carpenters work in a manner peculiar to this city. They have neither pit-saw, hand-saw, carpenter's adze, axe, nor hatchet; to slit a plank, they fix it in a vice, and use a spring-saw, strained by a bow, for working which they require two men. At this we need not wonder much; yet when we see two men employed with the same tool, that is, with a tool of the same form, but finer, to take either dove-tale joints for cabinets, or tenants for doors and sashes, we must be allowed to smile. If they wish to smooth a board, they let it incline upon two wooden tressels, and hew it across the grain with a cooper's adze, not reflecting that an elastic body cannot resist the stroke. It is by no means necessary that a mechanic should be able to explain the laws of motion; but what philosophers acquire by study, he should learn



learn by observation; and with him experience should supply the place of instinct, and supersede the use of abstract reasoning. The chocolate grinders have a method of working peculiar to Spain, and much preferable to that which is used in England. Our grinders, depending altogether on muscular exertion, use only the muscles of one arm, and employ those muscles to the greatest disadvantage; whereas in Barcelona, the slab, instead of being flat and horizontal, is curved, forming the segment of a hollow cylinder, and is inclined to the horizon. The operator kneeling behind this, and leaning over it with a granite roller, which is something longer than the slab is wide, grinds the chocolate, using both his hands, and pressing it with the weight of his body, as well as by the exertion of his arms. This operator goes from house to house, because most families choose to have their chocolate ground at home. For the market they have a more expeditious method, and grind the chocolate much finer than it can be made by hand. For this purpose, five rollers of polished steel, fixed in a frame, and appearing like the spokes of a wheel, or the radii of a circle, yet each turning round upon its axis, are placed between two mill-stones, of which one is immovable, whilst the other, with the rollers, receives motion by communication, in common with two other mills of the same construction, from a cog-wheel below stairs, which is turned in the usual method, by a mule. The nuts fall through hoppers, to feed the mills. In this manner, one man will grind three hundred weight of chocolate every day.

The manufacturers of silk, cotton, and wool, adopt all the modern improvements. It is now about a twelve-month since M. Pontet brought to them from France a model of a machine for spinning cotton, better than it can be spun by hand, something like that which was invented by Mr. Arkwright. As this machine is well known in England, I shall not de-

scribe it. They have here a company, established by charter, for spinning American cotton, to supply the manufactures which used to take annually from Malta spun cotton, to the amount of two hundred thousand dollars, or about thirty thousand pounds sterling. This company enjoys many and valuable privileges. They have fourteen of the Manchester machines at work. As the cotton comes over foul, and full of sand, they are obliged to prepare it before they can begin to work.

This they do in a simple machine, constructed for the purpose. They have a large lanthorn cylinder, made with pantile laths, leaving half an inch between lath and lath. This cylinder is inclined to the plain of the horizon, and is immovable. Within this they leave a portion of a cone, approaching in its form to the containing cylinder, turning on their common axis, and furnished with iron spikes, about five inches in length, placed in a spiral line, to correspond with similar spikes, fixed within the cylinder, in order to tease and to cleanse the cotton. The person who turns this machine with one hand, feeds it with the other. Government, which is disposed to give every possible encouragement to this branch of manufacture, has granted to the Marquis de Gorbent exclusive privileges for his blanket manufacture at Vicq, as a reward for his having planted cotton in the island of Ivica, and has offered premiums to those who spin the greatest length of thread from one ounce of cotton. For printing cottons they have the same slow process which was practised in England with stamps, previous to the use of cylinders. The manufacture which gave me the greatest pleasure, was one of woollen, carried on by Don Vincente Vernis. He employs three hundred and fifty persons in making cloth for Spanish America, which, indeed, takes most of the Barcelona goods, except some silk, smuggled with their brandy, through Guernsey into England. He has a  
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very compact and elegant machine for winding and twisting worsted, in which fourscore reels are managed by one little girl, whilst another gives motion to the whole, and at the same time employs herself at knitting.— This child, sitting on a bench, treads a vertical wheel, which, by means of a wheel with cogs fixed on the other end of the same axis, moves the horizontal wheel, and thereby turns the spindles. When one of the girls is weary, the other takes her place.

The manufactures have increased with such rapidity, that the wages of labour for all kinds of artists in the city and the environs, have advanced to two pistreens, or one shilling and eight-pence a-day, for which they work only seven hours. The common labourer will earn fourteen pence in winter, but in harvest twenty. These gains, however, are not out of proportion to the value of provisions, as regulated by the magistrate. Mutton is sold for ten-pence the pound, of thirty-six ounces; beef for seven pence; and bread at present for seven farthings the pound, of twelve ounces: lodging for a small family costs about two guineas a year.

The mechanics here allow, that to maintain a family with tolerable comfort, their gains must be one hundred livres Catalan for each, which is nearly eleven pounds sterling. As fuel is not easily procured, they use the utmost frugality in dressing their little dinners, seldom indulging themselves with either roast or boiled meat, but mostly stewing it in pitchers over their fagon, or little furnace.

Nothing can more distinctly mark the character of this people, and the rigid parsimony which accompanies the industry of the Catalans, than a trade by which many contrive to obtain a maintenance for themselves and for their families. This occupation is to make fagons, which they do for less than a penny sterling each. Their manner of constructing them is somewhat singular. They take any bottomless pot, without enquiring for what use or purpose this pot has been

before employed, they line it within, and cover the outside with well-tempered clay, then putting three iron bars in the bottom, and three knobs by way of feet, with three more to support an olla, or puchero, the whole is finished, and in this behold the poor man's kitchen. The puchero is simply an earthen pitcher, in which the meat is stewed, and hence the common invitation to dinner, even in the houses of wealthy citizens, is to partake of their puchero, or, as we say, to take pot luck.

The foundry for brass cannon is magnificent, and worthy of inspection. It is impossible any where to see either finer metal, or work executed in a neater and more perfect manner. Their method of boring was invented by Maritz, a Swiss. Near two hundred twenty-four pounders are finished every year, besides mortars and field-pieces. The stationers in Barcelona have a method of ruling books for merchants, than which nothing can be either more simple, expeditious, or exact. For this purpose they have a frame, with bars, moveable in grooves, which are readily fixed at the distances required.

In every country a traveller can pass through, he will find some mechanical contrivances, some modes of expediting work which are of late invention, or at least new to him; and I am inclined to think that no country, if thoroughly examined, would furnish more than Spain.— This, however, I conclude, not only from those transient observations which I have had opportunities of making, but from those of a most excellent mechanic, M. Betancourt, a Spaniard, who has sought out ingenious artists in their garrets, all over Europe, and who, I am persuaded, not from national prejudice, but from intimate knowledge and conviction, places his own countrymen among the foremost in fertility of imagination and mechanical invention.

The inspection of their gun-locks gave me peculiar satisfaction. In

those which are made in England, the tumbler, unless case-hardened, is apt to wear, and to go off upon the half-cock, and even when executed in the most perfect manner. How many accidents have happened in

going through a hedge; but in the Spanish gun lock, the tumbler, if I may be allowed to call it such, being of a different construction, is free from these imperfections.

## REVIEW OF NEW PUBLICATIONS.

### FOREIGN.

MEMOIRE SUR LA FORCE EXPANSIVE DE LA VAPEUR DE L'EAU; or, *Memoir on the expansive Force of the Vapour of Water.* Paris. 4to.

THE work now before us was read before the Royal Academy of Sciences at Paris, by M. de Betancourt, and had high encomiums bestowed on it. Fire engines have long exercised the ingenuity of able philosophers. Messrs. Watts and Bolton have greatly improved them, and M. de Betancourt, who, in his journey to England, has found out the mechanism of machines with a double injection, has acquired a new degree of merit in this department, by some experiments he has made, with the greatest precision and success, on the expansive force of the vapour of water, of different degrees of heat. These experiments throw a new light on vapour machines. The result of the experiments, and the author's ingenious applications of them, leads to many useful enquiries in many parts of science.

The apparatus of which Mr. Betancourt has made use, is composed of a copper kettle, hermetically closed, into which he introduced a thermometer and a syphon, containing mercury, designed to measure the pressure of the vapour, corresponding with each degree of the thermometer.

A void being made in the upper part, the author proceeded gradually in his experiments, by making the thermometer descend down to the freezing point; then applying fire, he succeeded in bringing his apparatus

to make the mercury move through every degree of the thermometer in a minute. He made a variety of experiments, by putting divers quantities of water in the kettle, and from all these experiments, it results, 1. That the vapour has the same degree of heat as the water from whence it arises. 2. That the pressure of the air and vapour acts in the same manner on the degree of heat, as the water can receive by a determined pressure. 3. That the same pressure will always answer to the degree of temperature, whatever may be the extent of the vessel in which the experiment is made.

These important consequences have afforded M. Betancourt some observations, which may become valuable in practice; first, he explains, in a much more precise manner than has hitherto been done, the reason why the effect of steam engines is greater in winter than in summer; in winter the water of the condenser being colder, does not heat so much in its contact with the vapour, which, itself remaining in a lower temperature, opposes with less force the vapour which presses the piston in an opposite direction.

Our author afterwards, in comparing the medium result of his experiments with those of M. de Luc, on the heat of boiling water, at the top of the mountains, finds the greatest difference to be two-thirds of a degree of the thermometer of Réaumur, and that at an altitude in which the atmosphere loses a third of its weight. We see, then, says the author, that

with instruments constructed in the same manner we may be able to measure the height of mountains by means of a thermometer plunged in boiling water, with an exactness equal, and, perhaps, superior to that of the barometer.

Another application the author makes of his experiments to philosophy, is that the degrees of the thermometer may be graduated with exactness, so that they may be compared, whatever may be the pressure exercised by the atmosphere in the water in which they are put, to determine the two points which should be used to divide their scale.

The author having substituted spirits of wine instead of water, in the apparatus, the result of these new experiments proved that the expansive force of water, and of spirits of wine, were in the same temperature in the proportion of 3 to 7. This is a subject of inquiry for those who would employ themselves in bringing steam engines to perfection. M. Berancourt thinks that even in the present state of our knowledge, we might employ spirits of wine, and produce a much greater effect without an increase of expence.

M. Berancourt, lastly, shews us the confidence we ought to have in his observations, by exhibiting the conformity of the calculations with his result. The Academy of Sciences have acknowledged this, by witnessing that hitherto they have not met with any example in philosophy, of so exact a conformity between the calculation and the experiment.

**SUPPLEMENTS; or, Supplements to the Social Contract.** Paris. 8vo.

WHAT renders the work of legislation toilsome, is not so much what is to be established, as what is to be destroyed.

Mr. Gudin, who is already celebrated as a poet, is also become so as a public man, by his history of the *Comitæ* and the States General; and

we shall read with interest what he now adds to the celebrated work, the *Social Contract*, to adapt it more to the present circumstances of the French nation. In his address to the National Assembly, he makes a judicious and important reflection on the revolution in France. The French, while divided into orders, provinces, and jurisdictions, subject to different laws, manners, and customs, were neither a people, a nation, or a confederacy, but only an aggregate of men, made so by time, victory, marriage, and successions, ranged by chance, under a chief whom nobody had chosen. The first labour of the assembly has been to change this aggregate into one association, into one people, and to efface all those disparities which hindered it. This was, perhaps, one of the greatest ideas that ever was conceived; one of the greatest enterprizes that ever was executed.

After having shewn the advantages of the revolution, he shews what were his motives for collecting into one work the ideas he had entertained on that subject, and which will form a natural supplement to the *Social Contract*; a supplement so much more necessary, as that work is now constantly referred to.

The author first explains the fundamental principle of society, and the necessity of circumscribing the body politic; he shews the inconveniencies which arise from too numerous assemblies, and also of assemblies of representatives, particularly if they interfere with the administration; and, lastly, the manner of judging of the general will.

Equality of rights and justice in all things are the proof, whether the law arises from the general will, or is enacted by a party. To oppose the decisions of this party, it is indispensibly necessary to establish what Mr. Gudin calls a tribunitial power.

Mr. Gudin then proceeds to investigate the powers given by the English constitution; he is particularly partial to it, and thinks this power

is vested in the upper house; but confesses that the house of peers is a body that can act contrary to the public will, and that many of the English think it detrimental to liberty.

The Thirteen United States of America have judged it necessary that the resolutions of one council should be revised by another, but they would not admit a house of peers.

However, Mr. Gudin thinks very favourably of the English house of peers, and says, that they have often joined with the people, to check the usurpation of the crown. On the contrary, the French, he says, have always declared against the people. Therefore, he says, this tribunitian power should not be vested in the French nobility.

By this we may perceive that Mr. Gudin thinks it necessary in a state, to have one power to be a check upon

the other, a system which a little reflection would convince him can only produce a state of anarchy. The necessity of having a king, Mr. Gudin warmly contends for.

Mr. Gudin seems highly pleased with what the National Assembly has done: but still he wishes for a power to check that body in any thing they may do wrong, and observes, that our Locke, in the constitution he framed for the province of South Carolina, proposed, that a power should exist to revise all the laws every hundred years. To this we will observe, that an annual election of representatives sets all this on its proper ground, and then, by an appeal to the people, the laws of their last legislature undergo a revision by the only tribunitian power which should exist in any state.

## BRITISH PUBLICATIONS.

ANOTHER SKETCH OF THE REIGN OF GEORGE III. FROM THE YEAR 1780 TO 1790. Part I. Ridgway, 1791.

**T**HIS pamphlet is professedly designed as an answer to the Sketch of the Reign of George III. reviewed in one of our former numbers. The author also proposes, in the course of this undertaking, to make some observations concerning the nature and end of government in general, and the nature of the British Government in particular. Of the resignation of Lord North he says:

What were the motives which induced Lord North to resign his situation of minister in March, 1782, and subsequent to that surrender, it is not perhaps so difficult a task to conjecture as the sagacious author of the Sketch seems to imagine. That minister probably considered that the war in which the nation had been unhappily involved with America, was the prevailing feature, and indeed the grand principle of his administration, of which

all the other parts were but subordinate, and dependent as it were upon that measure: when, therefore, the House of Commons manifested its disapprobation of that war, when a resolution was carried against its continuance; and when it was even not opposed, when moved, that which ever of his majesty's ministers should advise its continuance, should be deemed enemies of the country, and of his majesty, when all this was done not in a single movement of passion, not upon the sudden impulse of a great and grievous calamity, but after much intervention of time, much temperate deliberation, and by many successive resolutions, we can find but little to wonder at or admire, wherefore a minister whose whole administration had been thus involved in one general censure; from whom the confidence of Parliament had been withdrawn, and who consequently would have been able to do no one ministerial act, should resign his office, should retire into the ranks, nor think it painful to submit to a necessity which he could not controul.

It therefore required no very great portion of sagacity even for the author of the Sketch to discover the motives of the resignation of Lord North, when he found that his measures had been disapproved of by the Commons, and that he was deemed the author, the instigator, or the instrument,



strument, by which the nation had fallen into so great a calamity. Nor though the favour and support of the Crown had remained to him, should "the announcing his resignation, or stripping himself of the insignia of office," under these circumstances of public disapprobation "have so much astonished the audience as to make them doubt the fact of which they were witnesses."

His reflections on the increase of the peerage are judicious, and well worthy of attention.

But, says the author of the Sketch, whose gentle tones have, upon this occasion, sharpened into invective, "This was a bill (Mr. Burke's reform bill) which disarmed every succeeding minister, by leaving him scarcely any objects by which to stimulate activity, or to reward merit and adherence. A bill which, by compelling every administration, from want of offices, to multiply the peerage, as the only thing left in their power to bestow, and which, if not redressed and repealed, may eventually destroy the balance of the constitution; a bill, &c. &c."

That the progressive multiplication of the peerage does not only bid fair, but is certain to destroy the balance of the constitution, is a point I shall not dispute with the author of the Sketch; and as it is one of the very few points, I might say the only one, in which I do agree with that author, I am the more particular in stating this conformity of opinion, as well for its singularity, as because it is some proof that I do not disagree with him necessarily, but only because I think I have reason to do so upon all other occasions. But though I admit of his conclusion, respecting the danger of the constitution, from a multiplication of the peerage, yet the other conclusion, for the sake of which the former was inadvertently made, namely, that therefore Mr. Burke's reform bill merited the detestation of any other description of persons, but of those who have lost every honest feeling, in a base subservience to a court or to a minister, I do most strenuously oppose.

When that bill was proposed, it did not occur to those (nor, thank God, has the case yet occurred) who supported and carried it through, that at any distance of time, a hardy minister would arise, who, careless of every consideration of public good, should maintain his private interests by advising an intemperate exercise of a prerogative which must be attended with such fatal effects; who should secure his situation of minister, by endangering the liberties of the people, and should say

what was personal to himself, by waiving, with a shameless prodigality, the constitution of his country. Certainly such apprehensions, so injurious, so little probable in the event, could not be entertained by persons whose hearts were pure, whose intentions were righteous, and whose resources were not of that kind; nor if they had been entertained would they have changed their measures, or have desisted from them: for virtue is still immutable, nor do the good refuse to act because they are afraid of the crimes of the wicked.

Of the two India bills successively produced by Mr. Fox, and Mr. Pitt, he observes:

Which party was right upon this very important occasion, it is not for me to decide, the public has already decreed; perhaps the day is not far removed, when the same public, from a fatal experience of the effects flowing from a different system, shall reverse that decree with grief and repentance. The bill, however, passed the Commons by a very great majority: but being sent to the Lords, its progress was at first impeded by artificial delays, and it was at length finally rejected in that house.

The means that were used to procure the rejection of the India bill in the Lords, the secret machinations, the midnight conspiracies, the insinuations, the whispers, the threats, the effect of these upon the conduct of some noble lords, who promised and withdrew their support almost in the same breath, and yielded to influence what honour should have maintained, are not touched upon here, or are slightly touched upon for the sake of preserving the thread of the history. The author suppresses truth to avoid a libel.

Presently after this event, on the 18th of December, at twelve o'clock at night, the seals were demanded from the two Secretaries of State, who were dismissed from their offices. A resignation of all the other members of the cabinet immediately took place; and the appointment of Mr. Pitt to the offices of first Lord of the Treasury and Chancellor of the Exchequer was announced to the public, together with an entire new administration.

We have now arrived at that period of our history which contains one of the most extraordinary political dilemmas that has ever yet, or as it is sincerely to be hoped, ever will be again experienced by this nation. There was seen at the same moment a minister, calling himself minister

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of the crown, and yet borne up by a tide of popularity, such as had never flowed with more violence in its natural direction; there was seen, for the ample space of more than three months, a contention between prerogative and privilege; a minister maintaining his place, and yet denied to act; a House of Commons refusing every confidence to a minister, and yet obliged to submit to his continuance in office; the fatal consequences that might arise from such a state of things disregarded, and finally a triumph of rashness over moderation, and a voluntary desertion on the part of the people of that body which is constituted to protect their rights, and which they could not abandon upon such an occasion without establishing the fatal conclusion that their own consent was not necessary to the continuance in office of a minister, or that if it was necessary, the House of Commons was not at every period of its existence the representative of the nation and the organ of its will. The first of these consequences we should find dangerous to liberty, as it amounts to little less than an acknowledgment, if we trace its effects, of arbitrary power in the crown; the second could not fail to produce all the anarchy and confusion which must flow from the dissolution, or the supposed dissolution, at any time, of legal government.

**A TREATISE OF THE PLAGUE:** containing an *Historical Journal, and Medical Account, of the Plague at Aleppo, in the Years 1760, 1761, and 1762. Also Remarks on Quarantines, Lazarettos, and the Administration of Police in Times of Pestilence. To which is added an Appendix, containing Cases of the Plague; and an Account of the Weather during the Pestilential Season.* By PATRICK RUSSELL, M. D. F. R. S. formerly Physician to the British Factory at Aleppo. 4to. Robinsons. London, 1791.

SOME of our readers will startle at the sight of a quarto, containing between 500 and 600 pages, besides a long appendix, on a single disease. We could however most sincerely wish that all distempers were examined with this exactness, and that we might not so frequently hear only a few general symptoms, most

of them referable to other acute diseases, while the varieties of this formidable complaint remain unnoticed, and its specific marks obscurely traced.

The comprehensiveness of the work before us is not its only merit. Every thing promised in the title page is executed with an exactness, industry, and judgment that can only be equalled by the modesty of the author. In apology for so elaborate a performance, on a disease almost forgotten in Great Britain, it is observed, with much propriety, that hitherto whatever has been written on the subject has usually been under the immediate apprehension of the disease, and at a time that neither admitted of cool deliberation nor an accurate statement of facts; or else by persons who, not having been witnesses of the infection, could only judge by the reports of others.

The following is the division of the work.

The first book contains an historical journal of the plague at Aleppo, during three successive years. To this are subjoined many important observations on the manner in which quarantines are managed by the Europeans and natives of that country. In these, as in every other part of the work, the author has been as minutely exact as the nature and importance of the subject requires.

The second book contains the medical history of the disease, from the author's own observation and experience. Though the great accuracy and minuteness, with the various classifications and subdivisions of the disease under different circumstances, and its symptoms, may seem irksome to common readers, in our present state of apparent security, yet, should it ever happen that this country should be visited by such a calamity, we cannot be too thankful to the labours of this industrious observer. That the narrative might be as little interrupted as possible, all the cases which illustrate the author's ob-

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servation are referred to the appendix. Though, from the nature of the work, we are in a manner forbidden to make any abridgment; and, from the length of each individual part, we cannot offer an extract; yet in this place we feel an inclination to make one remark on our author's opinion concerning buboes. Whether these came to matter or no, (he observes) made but little difference in the event of the disease. If a fluctuation were felt, the progress of the buboe often was uncertain, at one time appearing to advance, at others to recede. This is, with much propriety, ascribed to the state of the teguments, and not to any alteration in the gland itself. Where suppuration has taken place, our author is of opinion that the most simple topical applications are the best, leaving it to nature to bring the matter to the surface. But he seems to regret, in some cases where an evident fluctuation was felt, that no surgeon was at hand, to make an artificial opening; because, when once matter is formed, an early evacuation is certainly desirable. This conclusion results from the idea, that, "to the absorption of matter from these buboes might be imputed the febrile paroxysms and exacerbations which continued to harass the patient for some time after he was out of all danger." As all this is matter of theory and conjecture, except as far as relates to the symptoms, we shall venture to start an opinion in opposition to our author. If the matter did not come readily to the surface, we may suppose there might be some cause in the constitution, and to this same cause we may attribute the paroxysms. But if they are to be attributed to the absorption of the matter, there seems no reason why the same should not take place where the skin was open, and the matter continued to discharge itself either freely, or slowly by sinuses. If the matter, thus confined, is to be considered as more infectious than what is secreted afterwards, during the process

of healing, we must then expect from its absorption, not only exacerbations that harass the constitution, but a regular return of the symptoms of the plague, and this as often as the absorbed matter continued to produce any effect at all on the constitution. It is true our author mentions this only as a possible case, and seems for the most part averse to surgical assistance; but in our opinion, judging of this by other diseases, we should conceive no opening was ever necessary—that, where the matter was backward in coming to the skin, the state of the constitution was unfavourable to the healing process, and the opening would be better deferred till the health was established—and that, if the whole of the matter should be absorbed, no more injury need be dreaded than from what is called by our author the dispersion of the buboe, before matter is formed. This last process can only be effected by absorption; and the cause of the enlargement of the gland being the same as what produces suppuration, the same effects might be expected from absorption in either case. We should not have ventured to differ with a writer of such close observation, but that the opinion is given by himself merely as such; and that what we have stated applies equally to these and all other buboes, and in some respects to all abscesses formed during fevers.

These remarks on buboes, with others on carbuncles and cutaneous eruptions, are confined to a chapter by themselves. The other symptoms enumerated are fever, delirium, coma, impediment or loss of speech, deafness, muddiness of the eyes, white tongue, state of pulse, respiration, anxiety, pain at the heart, inquietude, debility, faintings, convulsions, appearances of the urine, perspiration, vomiting, looseness, and hæmorrhage; to which may be added, the usual effects of pregnancy. All these are described with accuracy and judgment, and without any attachment to system or unfounded theory.

On

On the subject of cure, our author is as candid as we have found him accurate in his description of symptoms. His remarks and distinction between relapse and re-infection are very judicious, and highly necessary to guide every young practitioner.

The next book is altogether on the subject of contagion. If any part of the work might be shortened, in our opinion it is this: The subject is certainly important; but whether it is, that having always thought with the author, and perhaps not being so conversant as himself with the arguments on the opposite side, we have seen less necessity for 100 pages, to prove what we never doubted. We shall not take on us to determine; but certain it is, that we feel anxious to get on to the subsequent more important subject. The author, indeed, apologizes for the length of his arguments, and, it is but justice to add, gives some reasons that seem to justify his prolixity.

Book the fourth is on quarantines; and though he has been anticipated in many parts of this, such is the importance of the subject, and such the judicious manner in which our author treats every part of it, that we never found ourselves weary in the perusal. If any thing can shew in a stronger point of view the total inattention of government to all commercial regulations not immediately connected with revenue, the present case may serve as an instance. Any one acquainted with the present mode of conducting the Turkey trade, would hardly conceive it possible that the legislature had made several provisions for a lazaretto, and even given discretionary powers to the executive government, which has been totally inattentive to this very important object, and even to the powers and directions given them by parliament. This part of the work concludes with many useful, but not all of them new, remarks on the means of lessening the inconveniences of the present method, and the best plan of a lazaretto, should it so happen that any set of ministers should think the subject worth their attention.

The next book, on the police at the time of the plague, is not less important, nor written with less perspicuity, accuracy, or minuteness. As we have before observed, it is impossible either to abridge or extract any part; we must, therefore, refer the reader to the performance itself. The first chapter contains the historical account of these regulations, which are traced back to the close of the sixteenth century; some judicious remarks on an act passed by James I. in the year 1603, and of George I. in 1720; together with a long protest of the lords, and also observations on the measures recommended by Dr. Mead, in his discourse on the plague. This chapter is particularly full. The rest of this part of the subject is divided into four chapters, containing measures proper to be pursued in the four different stages of the disease. In the first, the author recommends, instead of an absurd policy, which would make a state secret of any suspicious appearance of the plague, that the officers of the police should proclaim their suspicions as early as possible, and rather act with the caution of the disease existing when unnecessary, than run the hazard of deliberating while it is making such advances as will render it difficult, if not impossible, to stop its farther progress. The fatal effects of these deliberations, and paying too great attention to the dissensions among physicians, and waiting their final determination, are well stated in the melancholy instances of Messina and Marseilles. In the former, such was the obstinacy of the majority of the physicians, and the determination of the inhabitants to be deluded, that the effect of the plague could not at last be stopped, till there ceased to be any more matter to work on; that is, till no subjects were left but those who had survived the disease, and such as had shut themselves up from all communication.

The means of preventing its spread in this early stage of the plague are pointed out with great minuteness, and



and with a close attention, not only to the main object, but to the prejudices, fears, and obstinacy of the different parts of the community. This chapter concludes with the following striking paragraph :

But, in order to realize the advantages above alluded to, it will be necessary to carry the regulations immediately into execution; every day's delay is of dangerous consequence. No complaisant indulgence to rank, or partiality to connexions; no delusive hope of a change for the better; no regard to the discordance of medical opinions; nor no apprehensions of popular clamour, should influence the magistrate in the discharge of his duty. Compassionately attentive to the unhappy sufferers, he should exert all his powers to relieve their distress. But to extend undue indulgence to a few individuals, at the risk of the community, is to betray a sacred trust, and to be wanting in compassion to thousands.

In the second stage of the disease, the author recommends that all persons in health should be advised to quit town instantly, with their servants; that every possible communication between those who are left should be prevented. For this purpose he proposes all places of public entertainment should be shut up, as well as the churches, and every other place likely to produce an indiscriminate concourse. The clergy, he observes, may be very well employed in assisting the police officers. The churches, he thinks, in case of necessity, might well be used as lazarettos; to which the great circulation of air, from the loftiness of such edifices, and their vicinity to the burying-grounds, admirably adapts them.—All persons should be advised, if they do not remove into the country, to shut themselves up in their houses as early as possible, in order to avoid shutting the contagion up with them. These are only a few of the regulations proposed among many others; all of which are well worth attention; and though we sincerely hope neither the present age nor posterity may have occasion to avail themselves of Dr. Russell's labours, yet, should fo

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great a calamity happen, we will venture to affirm, he will not be accused of having written a line too much. Among other things, the proposal for a public establishment for pledges seems deserving the attention of the legislature, not only when a town is visited by the plague, but at all other times.

The regulations in the third period of the plague are pointed out with equal exactness. The chief of these are—that persons who have hitherto escaped, by shutting themselves up, and using the necessary precautions, should be encouraged to persevere, and not sink into despair by the account they hear of the mortality in the town: that the cautions before given should not be confined to the infected place, but should extend to all the villages: that the searchers, or visitors, employed by the police to examine persons supposed to be infected, should be appointed from among such as, having gone through the disease, are not liable to a return. On the subject of burying the dead, our author proposes many useful expedients; but in this article we conceive he might have been still more diffuse. That the smell of putrid animal matter is at all times unwholesome, experience sufficiently demonstrates; but we could have wished for some enquiry, how far the plague, or any other infectious disease, is communicable from dead bodies. It will at least admit of a doubt whether the morbid secretions are not the only sources of infection; and if so, transpiration having ceased after death, may not the whole danger of infection cease with it? However this may be, we shall not scruple to affirm; that combustion seems preferable to all other methods; not only from the certain and early destruction of every vestige of the disease, but because the decomposition of animal matter by fire, has been found by experience, an antidote against the infection of the plague. The horners in petticoat-lane are well known to have escaped, when the whole city was in-

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fecting;



fect; and if we expect to destroy the effect of the poison by decomposition, the aerial part of animals, separated by fire, seems very likely to produce such an effect. With the dead body might be destroyed all the infected apparel, &c. and such fires might be kindled in every street.

The manner of distributing provisions through the different quarters of the town is next attended to; and the chapter closes with a very useful hint to magistrates, not to conceal themselves, but by a vigilant attention to their duty, and appearing frequently in public, to lessen as much as possible the apprehensions of the public, and the consequent increase of the general calamity. The same advice is extended to the clergy, who being at these times excused all public duty, even the rites of sepulture being suspended, and the office of baptism transferred to nurses and midwives, have leisure to perform the most important services, by not flying from their charge, but engaging actively in assisting the magistrates, and explaining to the people the propriety of the restrictions, and their duty in co-operating in them.

The observations on the fourth class of disease are not less accurate and circumstantial than in the three preceding ones. But as the urgency of the case has, by this time, lessened a little, the magistrate may deliberate with more coolness, and need only be cautious not to relax the former injunctions too fast. The subject of fires in different parts of the town is here well canvassed, and the author's conclusions seem reasonable and just. But having already endeavoured to give some idea, however inadequate, of this comprehensive work, we must refer our readers for the minutiae of some, and the whole of other divisions of this important subject, to the work itself.

The appendix contains more than a hundred cases, selected with judgment, and illustrating many important facts.

AN ADDRESS DELIVERED AT THE INTERMENT OF THE LATE DR. RICHARD PRICE, ON THE 26TH OF APRIL, 1791. By Andrew Kippis, D. D. F. R. S. and S. A. 8vo. 1s. Cadell. 1791.

IN our review of this article we shall content ourselves with extracting such passages as may give our readers the clearest idea of the writer, and his opinion of the person who is the subject of his discourse.

The address commences thus:

It is not a common instance of mortality that now demands our attention. It is not a common person whose remains we are committing to the ground, and to whom we are paying one of the last tributes that can be paid of regard and affection. This stranger (if any there be who are strangers to the melancholy cause of our assembling together) may collect from the numerous attendance to which we are witnesses. They will naturally suppose that it must be a character of extraordinary eminence and merit which could call forth such a large and respectable company of mourners. Nor will they be deceived: for it is the great and good Dr. Price whose obsequies we are celebrating. When I say the great and good Dr. Price, I speak language that will not be suspected to have the least tincture of flattery; for I speak language the truth of which will be felt by all who have formed a just estimate of his excellent writings; by all who have discernment and spirit enough to value the warmest exertions for the best interests of mankind; and by all who have had the opportunity of being acquainted with his real worth.

In the course of a liberal and learned education, it was not to comparatively trifling objects that our deceased friend directed his principal attention. He was not insensible to the elegancies of literature; but his chief view was, to lay a foundation for solid knowledge, by an application to sciences of the noblest kind. It was on the great and fundamental principles and obligations of morality, on the higher species of mathematics, on the sublimer parts of natural philosophy, on the true basis of government, and on the questions which relate to the essential welfare and dignity of man, that his studies were employed; and in the prosecution of these studies, he not only enriched his own mind, but was enabled to become of eminent service to his country and to the world.

By his moral writings he has laboured with distinguished ability, to build the science of ethics on an immutable basis; and what he has advanced on the subject will always stand high in estimation, as one of the strongest efforts of human reason in favour of the system he has adopted. For myself, I scruple not to say, that I regard the treatise referred to as a rich treasure of valuable information, and as deserving to be ranked among the first productions of its kind. With respect to the other ethical works of our friend, every one must admire the zeal, and earnestness, and strength, with which he endeavours to lead men into pious views of God, of providence, and of prayer, and to promote the exercise of devout and amiable dispositions.

In consequence of Dr. Price's profound knowledge in the natural calculations, he was qualified, at a particular crisis, for being of singular utility to his fellow-citizens. A number of schemes for insurance of lives, and the benefit of survivorship, were rising up in different parts of this metropolis, and promising mighty advantages to those who embarked in them. The superstructure was pleasing to the eye, but the foundation was hollow and deceitful. If they had been persisted in, they would have been succeeded by the most ruinous effects. The widows and orphans who looked up to them for support, would, in the end, have been plunged into poverty and distress. And these schemes would have been persisted in, and have been carried to an enormous excess, had not the benevolence of our friend urged him to apply his peculiar knowledge in the investigation of the calculations on which they were built. By his wisdom and his labours, by being eyes to those that were blind in understanding, he dispelled the delusion, and thus was of unspeakable benefit to thousands of families. In this respect he delivered the poor that would have cried, and the fatherless, whom there would have been none to help. The blessing of those who might otherwise have perished, came upon him; and he has given cause to many a widow's heart, that knew him not, to sing for joy.

But it was not in this instance alone that his great knowledge in calculations, reveries, and compound interest, was eminently useful. While we omit to mention the many private cases in which he was consulted, and wherein he performed much service to those who sought his advice, gratitude will not allow us to forget the ability and spirit with which he awakened the attention of his countrymen to that grand political object, the reduction of the national debt. It was his wisdom that directed to the best plan for

accomplishing a purpose in which the welfare, perhaps the salvation, of the British empire is so deeply concerned. With him it was that the scheme of the present minister is understood to have originated; and it is fervently to be wished, that there may always be that clear understanding, and genuine integrity, in the ruling powers, together with that anxiety for preserving the blessings of peace, which shall enable them to carry the design into full effect.

If we did not live in a venal age, it would be unnecessary to say, that in all these things Dr. Price was perfectly disinterested; that he acted without fee or reward. His sole aim was to do good; and in making this his sole aim, he could not avoid receiving an ample recompense in the consciousness of his benevolent intentions and exertions.

Indeed, what crowned the whole of his character, was its being an assemblage of the most amiable and excellent private virtues. His piety was sincere, humble, and fervent; his soul pure and elevated; his views disinterested and noble. His manners were mild and gentle; and what particularly distinguished them, was their unaffected simplicity. This was apparent in the whole of his behaviour; it struck every beholder; it recommended him to the love and esteem of all who conversed with him. To intrigue, to art, to concealment, he was a perfect stranger; he always looked and spoke what his feelings dictated; and his feelings were ever on the side of integrity and liberty; of humanity and benevolence.

You are sensible that I am now upon a topic on which, with the strictest truth, I might greatly enlarge; but I restrain myself. Your own hearts have already suggested more than I can express. Dr. Price had no enemies, but such as were enemies to his public principles; and among those who differed the most from him in this respect, many were his zealous and affectionate admirers.

Dr. Kippis proceeds to describe his friend's public actions, and the opinions formed of them in different parts of the world. As few are ignorant of these, we shall leave our readers to form their own judgment of them, as well as of the particular passages we have extracted, relating to his private character.

A LETTER TO THE RIGHT HON. EDMUND BURKE; by Sir Brooke Boothby, Bart. 8vo. Debrett.

SIR Brooke is one of those politicians who seems strongly possessed with

with the necessity of having *great parties* to defend the liberty of the subject; and when government, as at present in this country, forms only a party, struggling to secure themselves in power, we admit that the opposition must necessarily unite also, otherwise all their efforts must be vain. But this is a vice in the constitution, which tends to throw all the power into the hands of the aristocracy, and could neither be necessary nor practicable, if the proper share of power was vested in the people. However, our author assures us, he is not of either party, but writes only because he feels it his duty; a perusal of his work strongly proves the goodness of his intentions, and he has executed it in an able manner; he proves himself elegant, well-bred, and well-informed.

He combats and controverts Mr. Burke's positions, with strong reasoning, and perfect politeness. With respect to France, he shews, to the conviction of every unprejudiced person, that a free constitution could not possibly have been erected on the old establishment; and ridicules, with the pen of a gentleman, Mr. Burke's affected dread of the decay of commerce, arts, sciences, &c. in France, and also in Europe.

On religious liberty, and the necessity of an ecclesiastical reform, we meet with the following excellent observations:

"No man, or body of men, under any pretence whatsoever, can assume the power of governing or forcing the belief, the thought, the reason of others, without the most impious and foolish arrogance of the power of God. Religion, as a rule of faith, by which we are to be saved or condemned in another life, must be the exclusive private concern of the individual, in which every man has an indisputable right to follow the right of his own reason, and to reject all authority founded on the reason of others. Law is a rule of action only, and cannot be extended to the sentiments and feelings of men. Those who

denounce to us eternal damnation as the consequence of error in faith, and then would force us to hazard our immortal souls upon their judgments, who have no concern in the matter, contrary to our own reason, who have so deep an interest in it, are the most execrable of all tyrants. All temporal power in the church is of mere human invention, and amenable to human controul. Christ has expressly declared, that his kingdom is not of this world. If the apostles were obeyed, it was from the reverence of their virtues, and not from any obligation; they received the voluntary gifts of the brethren, but they laid no claim to a tenth share in every man's possessions, or the produce of his industry. Excommunication was no more at first, as the word imports, than expulsion from a club or society; and bishops only men of the wiser and discreeter sort, chosen by the brotherhood to preside over their ceremonies. In process of time this society became sufficiently strong to set all civil governments at defiance, and then, that fatal confederation between civil and ecclesiastical power took place, under which mankind has groaned for more than a thousand years. By this contract for the bodies and souls of men, the mind is first to be enslaved, and then the body delivered over to the secular arm, with its active principle, the spring of all its virtues and faculties, bound up in chains. From this complicated tyranny, even death itself is no refuge. Its power extends into the kingdom of darkness; the miserable mortal who has not obeyed its ordinances here, who does not go to the grave clothed in the *san benito* of their inquisition, and carry in his hand the passport of absolution, is handed over to the agents of the hierarchy in another world; to the discipline of eternal torment.

"Hierarchy, considered as a religious institution, is contrary to the plain precepts of Christ, and to the whole tenor of the Christian religion. As a civil institution, where it has been

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most modified and reformed, it is at best an unnecessary burden upon the industry of the people, and is dead weight in the preponderating scale of power. In this country it is perhaps one of those evils, sanctified by time, which it may be more safe to endure than to remove, but still calling loudly for reform. The ecclesiastical courts are a crying oppression. The miserable and inadequate provision made for the major part of the parochial clergy is also a serious grievance. In the place where I live, the respectable clergyman with a numerous family does the duty of a most extensive parish for sixty pounds a year, while from the same parish the Dean of Lincoln receives a thousand per annum for doing nothing at all."

Some of Mr. Burke's assertions appear to Sir B. Boothby so truly ridiculous, that he passes them over, for fear of being drawn into more levity than is consistent with respect.

Our author freely delivers, not only his religious, but his political principles. Of the latter, the following will give a good idea, that when government, under any form or denomination, offers oppression in the room of protection, and injury instead of justice; a stone for bread, and a serpent for a fish, such government ought to be resisted with all the powers which God and nature have placed in our hands. Accordingly, supposing himself and his countrymen to be carried forward to a period of time, which he hopes may be a distant one, but which he thinks not unlikely to happen, from our actual tendencies; a period when representatives shall represent nothing but their own personal interests, and a house of lords shall consist of new creatures of the minister, and old valets of the king; he should resist, though even in such a case he would not advise an immediate, which might be a premature, resistance.

Sir Brooke closes his letter with assuring Mr. Burke, that should the nation exclaim, *To your tents, O Israel*, he should hear the call with dread and horror, but hopes he should obey

it; otherwise he should for ever after live a coward in his own esteem.

MEMOIRS OF THE COURT OF FRANCE DURING THE REIGN OF LEWIS XIV. AND THE REGENCY OF THE DUKE OF ORLEANS. By M. Anquetil, regular Canon of the Congregation of France, &c. Translated from the French. Bell and Bradfute, Edinburgh.

A VARIETY of authors have given us the Reign of Lewis XIV. our author affords us the history of his Court, of Lewis in his private life, among his family, his Ministers, and his Courtiers. To accomplish this work M. Anquetil has read and made use of a number of volumes, and has particularly attended to the most celebrated Memoirs of Saint Simon. From these he has selected a number of anecdotes which he has placed in a clear and perspicuous light. He affords us authority for all he writes, and expresses every thing in a pleasing and lively manner.

The first volume begins with the youth of the King, and gives an account of his favourite pursuits, his marriage, his Ministers, his gallantries, and the transactions of his Court to 1695, and the second pursues the same subjects to the end of his reign.

We shall, as usual, present our readers with some copious extracts from this work.

Of the genius of Lewis XIV. his society, government, and Ministers, he says,

If we may believe the same writer, who is oftener disposed to exaggerate evil than good, "Lewis XIV. had an understanding above mediocrity; rather solid than brilliant; but capable of forming, of improving itself, and of borrowing from others, without appearing to imitate them tamely, or follow them servilely. He derived vast advantage from mixing with men of the world, who possessed great talents, and those of different kinds. In the beginning of his reign, his ministers were all men of the greatest capacity, and his Generals, the most skilful in Europe. He learned every



"every thing from them. The abilities of those enlightened men, and of those who were formed in their school, were produced by the commotions by which the kingdom had been agitated since the death of Lewis XIII. and which had formed a multitude of illustrious characters. This is the usual effect of civil wars; and, in the same manner, a deficiency of national genius is a common consequence of long internal tranquillity. Our posterity will see what sort of characters the descendants of those great men will turn out."

"The Queen-Mother was a devotee; the young Queen appeared timid and embarrassed amid a great Court; in consequence of which, all the most eminent, both men and women, about Court, used to assemble at the house of the Countess of Soissons. As Governess of the Queen's Household, she lodged in the palace of the Tuileries, continued to reign there, after her uncle's death, and maintained her power, by displaying some remainder of the splendor of the Cardinal, and still more by her good sense, and even by her audacity. Her apartment was the scene of gallantry and intrigues. Few were admitted there, but such as were decorated with titles, and who being either relations or friends, lived together in habits of familiarity: new and unknown persons were absolutely excluded. There the King put on that air of politeness and gallantry, which he, through the whole of his life, united so happily with the dignified manners that become the Monarch. It may be said, with truth, that his figure, his carriage, his graceful manner, the beauty of his countenance, and that dignity of mien, into which the beauty of his features mellowed, as he advanced in manhood,—nay, even the sound of his voice, and his step in walking, distinguished him as much among his Courtiers, as the King of the bees is distinguished by personal appearance, above his subjects. Had he been born only to a private station, he would have been no less qualified to shine at feasts, and in parties of pleasure, and to excel in the arts of seduction."

Two days before the death of Mazarine, the administration of the Government was settled by his direction and advice; and the machine was ready for operation, when Harlai de Chanvalon, President of the Assembly of the Clergy, waited on the King, to ask him to whom he was, in future, to address himself in the transaction of the public business, and was answered by his Majesty, *To myself*. Lewis XIV. indeed, always pretended "to govern by himself; and his preten-

sions were just, if, to listen to none but Ministers, to see only with their eyes, and to employ no other means of coming at the truth, where they have an interest in concealing it, be to govern by one's self."

He had, first, three ministers; Le Tellier for the war department; Lionne for foreign affairs; and Fouquet, Superintendent of the Finances. Their characters have been drawn. "Michael le Tellier," says Choisy, who has been copied by subsequent historians, "was a man of an handsome figure, agreeable manners, and an easy temper, timid in the management of his private affairs, but bold and enterprising in those of the state. He was not without firmness to follow a determinate plan, yet better qualified for a secondary than for the first place. He was much afraid of gaining enemies; probably, because he knew himself to be a very dangerous enemy, when provoked. He was smooth and insinuating, a mighty promiser, and, in the ordinary intercourse of life, displayed a regular deportment, and the most obliging manners. But this was all that was to be expected from his friendship. —A piece of advice which he gave the King, in the case of Chancellor Seguier, affords an instance of his modesty. That magistrate wished much to be created a Duke and Peer. Le Tellier, when consulted on the subject, said to his Majesty:—"These high dignities, Sire, don't suit gentlemen of the robe; it will be better policy to reserve them as rewards for military excellence." Louvois, le Tellier's eldest son, could never, with all his services, efface from the mind of his master, the impression made by this slight word, which his father had dropped, without thinking of consequences.

"Hugh de Lionne, a gentleman of Dauphiny, was well skilled in the interests of Princes, and an expert negotiator; but too well known for such by foreign ministers, who were afraid of his arts, and on their guard against them. The business in which he was engaged, was generally embarrassing, and such as required the utmost dispatch; yet he did every thing himself, with unequalled dexterity and perseverance; cheerfully sacrificing the care of his fortune, health, dress, even amusements and convivial enjoyments, to public business.

"Nicholas Fouquet, famous for his disgrace, was a man of poignant, sprightly wit; great taste in polite literature and the fine arts, and still fonder of pleasure, even of the most lawless pleasures, than of these. He made a pretence of being busy, in private, in



his cabinet at St. Mandé, his country-seat; and while the whole Court was in his anti-chamber, praising the indefatigable assiduity of this great man, he went out by a back stair, into a private garden, where ladies whom I could name, "if I chose," says Choisy, "came to amuse him for his money. He was the most extravagant, the most shameless of spendthrifts. Madame de Monteville, without ceremony, calls him a notorious robber.

"The King did business, every day, with these three Ministers, either all together, or separately. He rose about eight o'clock, said prayers, dressed, read either books or memoirs, and then made a short breakfast. At ten, he appeared in Council; from which he retired at noon, and went to mass. The time that remained before dinner, he either dedicated to the public, or spent in visiting the Queens, in their apartments. After dinner, he usually spent some time with the Royal Family. Then followed the discussion of business with some of the Ministers; and audiences, in which he used to listen with great patience; to receive petitions, and to return answers on certain days. The rest of the afternoon was passed in conversation with the Queens, or with the Countess of Soissons,—at play, which was always moderate, and always left to the decision of pure chance,—in walking,—or at the Theatre, according to the season of the year; nothing, except hunting parties, or some extraordinary amusement, was ever suffered to break through this distribution of the parts of the day. Supper was his favourite meal; he used then to sit long at table; and sometimes to close the evening with a dance or a ball."

There was no difficulty in making up a party for such amusements; while there were at Court *maids of honour*;—a character which, however, some person maliciously observed, is not easily maintained in that region. Those sprightly, giddy damsels were under the authority of the Duchesse de Navailles, lady of honour to the young Queen. She owed her place to Mazarine. A dispute concerning some privileges, that were claimed by both, produced a quarrel between this lady and the Countess of Soissons. The Countess, though neither the nor any of her sisters had shewn the least concern for the death of the Cardinal, reproached Madame de Navailles for her ingratitude to her uncle, in thwarting his niece; "Madam," replied the Duchesse, "were the Cardinal to return to life, he would be better pleased with my sentiments than with yours."

The following anecdotes will let the reader into the character of the Court of Lewis.

The Duke de Mazarine, when he retired from Court, wished to dispose of his office of Grand Master of the Artillery. Lauzun bought it of him, and went to ask it of the King; who promised it, but under condition of secrecy, till the day on which the Council of the finances was to meet, when he would declare himself. In this affair, we may see the importance of even a single word, and the value of a minute in affairs of importance. "When the day came, Lauzun went to wait on his Majesty, in an apartment adjoining to that in which the Council was to meet. He found Nyert, first valet de chambre to his Majesty, in waiting, who asked, What brought him there? Lauzun, imagining himself sure of his purpose, thought he might gain Nyert to his interests, by letting him know what was about to be declared in his favour. Nyert complimented him upon it; and looking on his watch, as if he had accidentally recollected himself, observed, that there was yet time for him to execute a pressing commission which the King had given him, and which required the utmost expedition. Then leaving Lauzun, and ascending a small stair that led to the cabinet of Louvois, he told that Minister, in two or three words, what he had learned from Lauzun.

"Louvois hated Lauzun, as the friend of his rival Colbert. He dreaded also his haughtiness, and the favour which he might acquire with the King; as the office which he was about to obtain, was necessarily connected with his own province of the war-department. He embraced Nyert, sent him directly back to his post, and, taking up some papers which he might use to introduce himself, left his closet, and found Lauzun and Nyert together in the anti-chamber. Lauzun expressed surprise at seeing Louvois about to enter the Council-chamber, and remonstrated to him that the Council was not yet broke up. "No matter," replied the Minister, "I have something of consequence to communicate to his Majesty." He accordingly went in; the King came up to him, led him aside to a window, and asked what he wanted.

"Sire, (said he) I understand your Majesty is going to declare M. de Lauzun Grand Master of the Artillery, and that he expects this favour at the breaking up of the Council. Your Majesty may dispose of your favours as you please;

"please; but I think my duty requires me to represent to you, that Lauzun and I cannot possibly act together. Your Majesty knows him to be haughty and absolute in his temper. He will be disposed to change every thing in the Artillery, without consulting aught but his own humour. This office is so necessarily connected with the war-department, that the service cannot possibly be done, if there be a misunderstanding between the Grand Master and the Secretary of State. And the smallest disadvantage that can possibly ensue is, that your Majesty will be daily troubled with our complaints, and continually called to decide concerning our mutual pretensions against each other." The King, irritated to find his secret betrayed to the person from whom he was chiefly desirous of concealing it, considered for a moment, then said to Louvois, "The thing is not yet done," and resumed his seat in the Council. The Council was soon after dismissed, and Lauzun then presented himself. The King passed him, without saying a word. Twenty times, in the course of the day, Lauzun presented himself affectingly in the Royal presence; but still the King was silent. At last, Lauzun ventured to speak to his Majesty, in the evening, after his company had retired. The King replied coldly, "That cannot be done yet; I shall see."

"Some days after, Lauzun fought a private conversation with the Monarch, and after some questions and replies had passed between them, audaciously challenged his Majesty to fulfil his promise. The King replied, that his word was no longer obligatory, as Lauzun had violated the condition of secrecy, under which his promise had been passed. Lauzun, retiring a few steps, turned his back upon the King, drew his sword, broke the blade under his foot, and swore that he would never more serve a Prince, who was capable of violating his promise so basely. The King had his cane in his hand, but threw it out of the window; "I should be sorry," said he, "for having struck a man of quality," and went out. Lauzun went out likewise, crying, like a madman, that he was undone; and was in fact arrested next day, and conveyed to the Bastille.

"He was at first guilty of a thousand extravagancies, suffered his beard to grow, and talked like a person out of his senses. When he became somewhat cool, he blamed himself as the sole author of his misfortune, found that the King had been too indulgent, and regretted neither the loss of his post,

"nor of his liberty, but only of his Majesty's favour. The King hearing this from persons whom he esteemed, was affected with it. The Artillery had been given to the Count de Lude, who, to pay for it, was obliged to sell his post of first Gentleman of the King's bed-chamber to the Duke de Gevres, Captain of the Guards. His was vacant. The King made it be offered to Lauzun, in the Bastille. The prisoner, on this sudden and unexpected alteration of the King's sentiments in his behalf, recovered so much confidence as to hope for something better, and refuse that offer. The King gave himself no concern. Guilty went to the Bastille to deal with his friend; and at length prevailed with him to have the goodness to accept. He thus passed suddenly from the Bastille to the first post of confidence, saluted the King, took the oath, and found himself better established at Court than ever. He soon afforded matter of astonishment to the Courtiers, by new and still more extraordinary adventures."

What renders his restoration to the King's favour the more surprising is, that Lauzun was on very bad terms with Madame de Montespan, then in the zenith of her power. She at least shared the monarch's heart with la Valliere. That was now known to all the world. None but the Queen ever wished to doubt of it.

(To be continued.)

BRIEF MEMOIRS OF THE JUDGES  
WHOSE PORTRAITS ARE PRESERVED  
IN GUILDHALL; to which are  
prefixed Engravings of the Earl of  
Chatham and William Beckford,  
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THE sudden rebuilding of London after the fire in 1666, is one of the most extraordinary events recorded in history. The City, conscious of the eminent services of the Judges, in promoting this desirable object, by preventing the expence and delay of law-suits, caused their portraits to be placed in Guildhall; but when paint and canvas shall be destroyed by time, this little tract will remain a lasting memorial of their real merit, and may, in the mean time, afford much satisfaction to the speculative observer. The engravings of the marble sculptures must be considered as a great addition.

POETRY.

## P O E T R Y.

## A BALLAD.

FROM RANNIE'S POEMS.

THE summer night was clear and still;  
The sea was smooth, the winds were low;

And from its source the village rill  
Retir'd with mournful lapse and flow.  
The nightingale complain'd aloud,  
The sorrowing dove prolong'd her moan,  
And, smiling from the snowy cloud,  
The moon with soften'd lustre shone.

The lucid stars through azure skies,  
All beauteous glow'd, with silvery shene;  
While fair Alfreda's lovely eyes  
With milder lustre grac'd the scene.  
As o'er a barren rock the lean'd,  
And view'd the wat'ry swell below,  
She thus her pensive bosom strain'd,  
With themes of recollected woe.

'When, doom'd by unrelenting Fate,  
'My charmer fled his native land,  
'What agonies did love create,  
'As blooming Damon left the strand?  
'As hov'ring o'er the vessel's side  
'I saw the foaming billows roll,  
'And strength'ning breezes lift the tide,  
'A louder tempest sway'd my soul.

'I gave to grief the tender tear,  
'Which melted on my Damon's heart,  
'As struck on my astonish'd ear,  
'The dreadful signal of "depart."  
'Encircled in his fond embrace,  
I strove to lengthen our adieu,  
Till from that shrine of matchless grace,  
'Forc'd by a rude unfeeling crew.

'And swift, unheld by love's controul,  
'O'er breaking waves the vessel flew,  
'I saw the day-star of my soul  
'Decline from my enquiring view.  
'My eyes, while fast he urg'd his flight,  
'Pursu'd the object of their care;  
'My tearful eyes pursu'd, till fight  
'Was lost in undistinguish'd air!

## THE FAIR THIEF.

BY THE LATE EARL OF ECREMONT.

I Tell with equal truth and grief,  
That little Kitt's an arrant thief;  
Before the urchin well could go,  
She stole the whiteness of the snow;  
And more, that whiteness to adorn,  
She stole the blushes of the morn;

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Stole all the softness æther pours  
On primrose buds in vernal show'rs.

There's no repeating all her wiles;  
She stole the Graces winning smiles;  
'Twas quickly seen she robb'd the sky,  
To plant a star in either eye;  
She pilfer'd oriental pearl for teeth,  
And stole the cowslip's sweetest breath;  
The cherry steep'd in morning dew,  
Gave moisture to her lips, and hue.

These were her infant spoil; a store  
To which in time she added more:  
At twelve, she stole from Cyprus' queen,  
Her air, and love commanding mien;  
Stole Juno's dignity, and stole  
From Pallas sense to charm the foul.  
She sung—Amaz'd the Syrens heard,  
And to assert their voice appear'd:

She play'd—the Muses from their hill,  
Wonder'd who thus had stole their skill:  
Apollo's wit was next her prey,  
And then the beams that light the day;  
While Jove her pilf'ring tricks to crown,  
Pronounc'd these beauties all her own;  
Pardon'd her crimes, and prais'd her art,  
And t'other day she stole my heart.

Cupid! If lovers are thy care,  
Revenge thy vot'ry on the fair;  
Do justice on her stolen charms,  
And let her prison be my arms.

## A PASTORAL.

ADDRESSED TO LAURA.

DEAR Laura, how can you behold  
The sorrow and heart-wasting grief,  
Which Daphnis now feels,—and withhold  
Your smiles, that would give him relief?

No longer he cares for his sheep,  
Or tends his fair flock on the hill,  
Where his goats us'd to browse on the  
steep,  
That hangs o'er yon murmur'ing rill.

No longer his pipe cheers the vale,  
Where careless he often would stray;  
Where violets scent the soft gale,  
And the lark hails the new born day.

Dejected now, sad and forlorn,  
To the winds he is heard to complain:  
"Fair Laura derides me with scorn,  
"And my tears and my sighs are all  
vain."

30

"How

"How happy I stray'd o'er the plain,  
 "When my love met an equal return,  
 "When Laura would lift to my strain,  
 "But alas she has left me to mourn.  
 "Farewel then ye joys of the spring,  
 "Farewel, I shall see you no more,  
 "To me ye no pleasure could bring.  
 "Since I'm slighted by her I adore."

## SONNET TO MEMORY.

BY MR. BALMANNO.

PARENT of thoughts from sensual dross  
 refin'd,  
 That thro' Reflection's channel purely  
 flow,  
 And form a portrait of the varying mind,  
 In Grief's despair or Joy's extatic glow.

When Pleasure breaks her gay illusive  
 charm,  
 Thy vivid pencil paints the mirthful hour,  
 When Love in transport fails, thy magic  
 power  
 Repeats the tender sigh, and soft alarm.

And ah! when Reason o'er the trembling  
 heart  
 In painful judgment sits, with frown  
 severe,  
 Thy whispers act the sharp accusing part,  
 And draw from sad remorse the con-  
 scious tear.

Thus at the summons of thy powerful sway,  
 The shades of transient bliss—and fears of  
 guilt obey.

## SONNET.

ON SEEING AN ANCIENT FORTRESS  
AND ARMORY.

BY W. HAMILTON REID.

THESE princely towers, majestic in de-  
 cline,  
 To some may give a retrospective eye  
 To the proud times of ancient chivalry.  
 Or when the goblets foam'd with gen'rous  
 wine,

Shield, helm, or battle-axe, th' aspiring  
 mind  
 May with a noon-tide fervency inspire;  
 And feats of those, long since to dust con-  
 sign'd,  
 In souls congenial wake a kindred fire.

But, who from life is wean'd by long  
 distress?  
 Pleasures more calm and soothing will  
 beguile:

He most the vestiges of time shall bless,  
 For, that he'll thank the hands who rais'd  
 this pile.

Sorrows and anxious cares no more await,  
 Beneath the wail of woe, above the reach  
 of fate.

## THE CONSOLATIONS OF GENIUS.

BY W. HAMILTON REID.

WHEN scenes of earth must vanish from  
 the view,  
 When friends and kindred all must bid  
 adieu;  
 When the blood chills—when every pulse  
 shall die,  
 When misty shadows swim before the eye;  
 What ray of comfort then shall gild the  
 breast?  
 What hope shall soothe the beating soul to  
 rest?  
 No honour broken, and no trust betray'd,  
 No injured orphan, no deluded maid;  
 If driven oft by passion's tide along,  
 The end still virtuous, tho' the means be  
 wrong.

## INSCRIPTION.

SACRED TO THE MEMORY OF A LADY,

IF native dignity, with grace refin'd,  
 The gentlest manners, and the purest  
 mind;  
 If Piety, with high instruction grac'd,  
 That glorious inmate of the virtuous breast;  
 If chaste Benevolence—Affection mild;  
 If melting pity for Misfortune's child;  
 If filial fondness, if the tenderest love  
 And truest friendship admiration move:  
 O deeply mourn Perfection's proudest  
 boast.  
 The fair possessor of these virtues, lost;  
 Nor check the tender sigh—the holy tear,  
 Meek Pity's best disciple slumbers here.

## WRITTEN FOR THE ASYLUM,

IN CONSEQUENCE OF AN ATTENDANCE  
ON THAT GLORIOUS CHARITY.

WE Orphans sav'd from deep distress!  
 Our Friends and Benefactors bless,  
 And may that Goodness we revere,  
 Reward the hearts that plac'd us here!

Like Ishmael at a distance cast,  
 "Our bread and water could not last."  
 But these "our Angels," Heaven has sent,  
 To give us life and sweet content.

Thus lifted up by generous hands,  
 Each Orphan as a Pillar stands,  
 By fair Religion rais'd, renew'd,  
 A Monument of Gratitude.

G. C.

## PARLIAMENTARY AFFAIRS.

IN the house of commons, on Friday, March 4, ballotted for a committee to try the merits of the Exeter election petition.

The Norfolk woolcombers bill was read a third time, and passed.

The American Intercourse bill was read a second time, and ordered to be committed for Monday.

In a committee went through the India annuity bill.

The Chancellor of the Exchequer moved, "That his Majesty's message relative to the new constitution for Quebec, be read," which was read accordingly.

GEORGE R.

His Majesty thinks it proper to acquaint the house of commons, that it appears to his Majesty, that it would be for the benefit of his Majesty's subjects in his province of Quebec, that the same should be divided into two separate provinces, to be called the Province of Upper Canada, and the Province of Lower Canada; and that it is accordingly his Majesty's intention so to divide the same, whenever his Majesty shall be enabled by act of parliament to establish the necessary regulations for the government of the said provinces. His Majesty, therefore, recommends this object to the consideration of this house.

His Majesty also recommends it to this house, to consider of such provisions as may be necessary to enable his Majesty to make a permanent appropriation of lands in the said provinces, for the support and maintenance of a Protestant Clergy within the same, in proportion to such lands as have been already granted within the same by his Majesty; and it is his Majesty's desire, that such provision may be made, with respect to all future grants of land within the said provinces respectively, as may best conduce to the same object, in proportion to such increase as may happen in the population and cultivation of the said provinces; and for this purpose his Majesty consents, that such provisions or regulations may be made by this house, respecting all future grants of land to be made by his Majesty within the said provinces, as this house shall think fit.

The Chancellor of the Exchequer then moved, "That the act of the 14th of his Majesty, respecting the said province, be read," and the title being read *pro forma*, he said, the purport of his motion was to repeal part of the above act, and to enact new regulations for the future government of the province. Feeling the importance of the subject, he should have been desirous of stating fully to the house

the grounds and principles on which he meant to proceed in forming a constitution for a valuable appendage to the British dominions; which, he trusted, would contribute to its future prosperity; but as it was not likely that there would be any opposition to bringing in a bill for this purpose, and as explanation would come with more propriety when the bill was before the house, he should state only in a few words the outlines of the plan, unless questions were asked, or explanation demanded in the first instance. The bill which he meant to propose was founded in the first place on the recommendation contained in his Majesty's message, to divide the province into two governments. This division, it was hoped, would put an end to the competition between the old French inhabitants, and the new settlers from Britain, or British colonies, which had given rise to the disputes and uncertainty respecting law, and to other disputes of less importance, by which the province had been so long distracted. This division, it was hoped, could be made in such a manner, as to give each a great majority in their own particular part, although it could not be expected to draw a line of complete separation. Any inconveniences to be apprehended from the ancient Canadians being included in the one, or British settlers in the other, would be cured by the establishment of a local legislature in each.

For this purpose, he should first propose, in imitation of the constitution of the mother country, a Council and House of Assembly for each; the Assembly to be constituted in the usual manner, and the members of the council to be members for life; reserving power to his Majesty to annex to certain honours an hereditary right of sitting in the council. All laws and ordinances of the province were to remain in force, till altered by this new legislature. They would consequently retain as much of the law of England as they now had and chose to keep, and they would have the means of introducing as much more as they might think convenient. The *Habeas Corpus* Act was already law by an ordinance of the province, and this invaluable right was to be continued as a fundamental principle of the constitution.

These were the most important points, but there were others to which the attention of the house was called by his Majesty's message. It was meant to make provision for a Protestant Clergy in both divisions, by an allotment of lands, in



proportion to those already granted; and as in one of them the majority of the inhabitants would be Catholics, it was meant to provide that it shall not be lawful for his Majesty in future to assent to grants of lands for this purpose under the sanction of the council and assembly of either division, without first submitting them to the consideration of the British Parliament.

The tenures which had been the subject of dispute were to be settled in Lower Canada, by the local legislature; in Upper Canada, the settlers being chiefly British, or British colonists, the tenures were to be sackage tenures.

To prevent any such dispute as had been the cause of separating the Thirteen States from the Mother Country, it was provided that the British Parliament should impose no taxes but such as were necessary for the regulation of trade and commerce; and to guard against the abuse of this power, such taxes were to be levied, and to be disposed of by the legislature of each division.

As the constitution which he had thus briefly opened could not be in a state of activity for some time, his Majesty was to be empowered to make temporary regulations, to be in force for six months after the establishment of the new constitution.

These were the outlines of the bill which he meant, with the permission of the house, to introduce, and, as he had set out with observing, he should omit any more particular explanation in the first instance, unless called upon.

Mr. Fox said, it was impossible to express an entire approbation or disapprobation of a bill which the house had not yet seen; but he did not hesitate to say, that if a local legislature was liberally formed, that would incline him much to overlook defects in the other regulations, because he was convinced that the only means of retaining distant colonies with advantage, was to enable them to govern themselves.

Ordered, that leave be given to bring in a bill to repeal certain provisions of the act of the 14th of his Majesty respecting the government of Canada, and to make other provisions, &c.

The report of the Mutiny bill was postponed till Thursday next.

A new writ was ordered for Poole, in the room of Benjamin Lester, Esq. who has accepted the office of Steward of the Chiltern Hundreds.

In the House of Commons, Monday, March 7. Parloe's divorce bill read a second time, and committed for to-morrow se'nnight.

Byng's estate bill read a second time and committed.

Brand's estate bill read a second time and committed.

Petition presented from Boston, respecting the Corn bill, referred to a committee on the Corn bill.

The chairman of the committee on the Steyning petition reported, that — Curtis, Esq. and Sir John Honeywood, were duly elected, and ought to have been returned; and that James Martin Lloyd, Esq. and Henry Howard, Esq. the sitting members, were not duly elected.

The committee for determining the merits of the election for the burgh of Fowey, made their report.

The clerk of the Crown was ordered to attend to-morrow, to amend the said returns.

The American intercourse bill was committed, and the report ordered to be received to-morrow.

The East India annuity bill was read a third time and passed, and Mr. Hobart was directed to carry it up to the Lords.

Read a second time Walford's divorce bill.

The Chancellor of the Exchequer brought in the bill for regulating the government of the province of Canada, which was read a first time, ordered to be printed, and to be read a second time on this day se'nnight.

A message was received from the lords, that they had agreed to the marine mutiny bill, and to the bill for regulating the number of the British forces in India, without any amendment.

Counsel were called to the bar, and heard for and against the Hereford canal bill; after which the house adjourned.

The House of Commons, on Thursday March 10, ballotted for a committee to try the merits of the petition of William Paxton, Esq. and certain electors of the burgh of Newark, complaining of an undue election for the said burgh.

A new writ was ordered for the borough of Lestwithiel, in the room of Lord Valletort, who has made his election for Fowey.

A list of the names of persons entitled to unclaimed dividends was presented, and ordered to lie on the table.

On the report from the committee on the Mutiny bill,

Colonel Fitzpatrick proposed an amendment; he said every mutiny bill was hostile to the principles of a free constitution, and that it was but a necessary evil; every clause, therefore, which extended its jurisdiction farther than was necessary, ought to be viewed with a jealous eye. The clause to which he objected was that which subjected Brevet officers, not in actual service, to the jurisdiction of martial law. Officers of this description, in his opinion, ought not to be included in the bill till they were called upon to act.

Another

Another clause to which he objected was that which subjects all persons, commissioned or mustered, to the jurisdiction of the bill. He therefore moved, that the word *and* should be inserted in the place of the word *or*.

The Secretary at War said, he was prevented by indisposition from delivering his sentiments, but he felt the less, as it was a question which had, on former occasions, been finally discussed.

Sir Charles Gould denied that the principle of the bill was new. The spirit of it had, in fact, existed since the reign of Queen Anne. The opinions of the Judges on the point were, that all persons holding commissions in the army, came under the jurisdiction of the mutiny bill. In support of this opinion, he mentioned the cases of Lord George Sackville, and General Ross.

Mr. Adam said that the case of General Ross, in which he had the honour to be consulted, made directly against the opinion of the learned gentleman who spoke last. It was at that time so far doubtful whether the Court should proceed to a trial, that they demanded from the General his commission, fearing that as he was not then in service, he could not be brought before a court-martial; and the question being referred to the Judges, they gave it as their opinion, that the General might plead his not having commission in bar to the trial of a military court.

The house divided on the amendment: Ayes 24. Noes 70. Majority against the amendment 46.

On the clause being read for billeting soldiers upon the keepers of livery-stables,

Mr. Fox moved an amendment, that after the words "stable-keepers," be inserted the words having taken out licences to deal in spirits, or sell ale."

The Secretary at War opposed the amendment, as it might be the occasion of fraud, by the keepers of livery stables having taps for selling ale in the name of their servants.

Mr. Fox, in reply, said, that from what had fallen from the right hon. secretary on a former occasion, he had no idea that the amendment would have been opposed; but he should, on the third reading, renew his opposition.

In the House of Commons, Monday, March 14, the chairman of the committee appointed to try the petition complaining of an undue election for the county of Stirling, reported, that Sir Thomas Dundas was duly elected.

The house in a committee of supply came to a resolution for voting the payment and cloathing of the militia for the year 1791.

The bill for regulating the government of the province of Canada was read a second time, and, on the motion of Mr. Pitt was committed to this day fortnight.

The House of Lords, Tuesday, March 15, in a committee of privileges. Counsel were again called to the bar in reply, on the petition of the Duke of Queensberry.

Lord Loughborough rose and observed, that as the case of the noble duke and the Earl of Abercorn had been so fully stated, it would tend equally to simplify and shorten the proceedings of their lordships, if those noble lords who were interested in the votes of the Duke of Queensberry, or the Earl of Abercorn, were to come forward with their cases, before the house went into the consideration of the remaining petitions. For that purpose he moved that the agents of the parties be called to the bar.

After putting several questions to the agents, whether they were satisfied with the pleadings for and against the votes of the Duke of Queensberry and the Earl of Abercorn, so far as the interest of their respective clients was concerned, it was at last agreed that the committee should meet again on Thursday; the agents to attend, and to be prepared with their cases.

In the House of Commons, Tuesday, March 15, a new writ was ordered to be issued for the election of a member for Steyning, in the room of Mr. Honeywood, elected also for Canterbury.

Sir William Young informed the house, that he had just come from a meeting of the gentlemen concerned in the slave trade. It was their earnest wish that a day might be appointed for the consideration of the bill to regulate that trade, being convinced that the most serious consequences would result from a longer procrastination of that subject. He therefore wished that the hon. mover of the bill would name a day, and he was of opinion that the 12th of April would be very proper for that purpose.

Mr. Wilberforce had no objection to the day proposed.

Colonel Tarleton proposed, that in order to secure to the business in question that discussion which its importance required, the house should be called over on Monday the 11th of April.

Mr. Fox observed, that a call of the house ought to take place sooner, on account of the very important motion which he had pledged himself to the House to make on the 6th of April. He therefore moved an amendment, that the House be called over on Tuesday the 9th of April. Agreed.

On the order of the day for the third reading of the mutiny bill,

Mr. Fox rose to acquaint the house, that he would not trouble the house with an amendment, for that the class of persons (private livery-stable keepers) who had petitioned on that subject, had determined rather to take the chance of application another year. Passed.

The resolution of the committee of supply for making a provision for the pay and cloathing of the militia for 1791, was agreed to.

A committee was then sworn to examine the merits of the petition on the Leominster election.

On the order of the day for the second reading of the bill for converting to the public service the sum of 500,000*l.* unclaimed dividends,

Mr. Thornton (Bank Director) presented a petition from the Directors of the Bank of England, stating that the sum of 500,000*l.* was not public money, and therefore could not justly be applied to that purpose. That this sum was entrusted to them by individuals, which government could not touch without violating the compact with the creditors of the state. By this compact the government had engaged to issue quarterly to the Bank the interest of such sums as were due to the public creditors, and that these dividends were entrusted to them by the public creditors, without whose consent they could not be applied to any purpose whatever. That the public creditor had stipulated that the interest of his money should be lodged in the Bank of England, and without a manifest violation of public faith, it could not in any other manner be disposed of. That only 190,000*l.* could come under the denomination of unclaimed dividends, the rest was merely a floating balance. The petitioners pray that the said bill do not pass into a law.

Ordered to lie upon the table.

The bill was read a second time ; when

Mr. Pitt moved that it be committed.

Mr. Fox thought that it would better become the wisdom and the prudence of the house to defer the commitment of the bill till such time as they had maturely weighed the merits of the bill with the weighty objections that were made by the Directors of the Bank of England in the petition that was now presented to the house.

Mr. Pitt could see no reason why the bill should not be committed. The house had had time enough to digest the merits of the bill, as well as the objections that might arise against its operation. He pledged himself to convince the house, in a committee, that no one principle

which touches public credit would be injured by the operation of this bill.

Alderman Watson said, it was not the general opinion that this sum of 500,000*l.* should be taken from the floating balance of the Bank of England. He was, therefore, of opinion, that the commitment should be deferred till such time as the petition of the Directors of the Bank should be weighed maturely.

Mr. Fox was convinced of the danger and injustice of the measure, and had all the Bank Directors agreed unanimously in the rectitude of that step, his objections would have been by no means done away. The right hon. gentleman over the way talks of his impatience, but he has hitherto cautiously avoided every opportunity of explaining to the house his reasons for adopting a measure so dangerous. He tells us indeed that this bill is perfectly innocent, and that no inconvenience can arise from the measure. The Directors of the Bank of England, on the contrary, assert, that this bill is calculated to alarm the stock-holders, and to sap the very foundation of public credit. Shall we prefer the *ipse dixit* of the honourable gentleman to the authority of the Bank of England ? The Chancellor of the Exchequer and the Directors of the Bank of England are at issue on an affair which much interests the welfare of the nation ; it becomes us to judge with mature deliberation. It is impossible to do this without weighing the objections stated in this petition ; and I appeal to the house whether any person can clearly understand and comprehend in his mind, at a cursory reading, the weighty reasons which have been urged in this petition ? I therefore move that the commitment be adjourned till Friday next.

Mr. Pitt treated with some ridicule the idea of adjourning the commitment of the bill on account of the petition.

Sir Benjamin Hammett deprecated every idea of precipitation on this subject. He conjured the right hon. gentleman to consider the danger of innovation, and affirmed, that since the Revolution, no measure of more importance had ever been agitated in that house.

Mr. Gray joined with the last honourable member in intreating the right honourable mover of the bill to delay the question for a few days.

Mr. Thornton observed, that the petition could not have been presented before, for it was not prepared till yesterday.

Mr. Pitt contended that he had explained his intention before the holidays, and that no doubt could possibly have arisen with respect to the object of the bill.

Mr.

Mr. Wyndham observed, that Mr. Pitt's objection to the tardy appearance of the petition was entirely done away, since it was proved beyond a doubt that it was impossible to present it sooner.

Mr. Whitbread confessed that he had not thoroughly examined the subject, and believed that a great majority of the house were in the same predicament with himself.

The Master of the Rolls was convinced that the subject was perfectly well understood by the public. The Directors ought to have taken an early opportunity of presenting their petition.

Mr. Fox always understood that the proper time for presenting petitions was on the second reading of a bill. The Master of the Rolls denied that such was the custom.

The Speaker thought it incumbent upon him to deliver his opinion on this subject; and he declared, that as far as his experience went, it was the invariable custom of the house to receive petitions on the second reading only of the bill.

Mr. Burke affirmed that the opinion of the Speaker was confirmed by the experience of the house.

The house then divided on the motion of adjournment.

Noes 179. Ayes 82. Majority 97.

When the strangers were re-admitted Mr. Fox was on the floor. He asserted that the public were by no means acquainted with the extent of the bill. Almost every person was of opinion that the bill extended to the unclaimed dividends alone, and had no conception that it touched the floating balance. He begged the house to pause a moment, and to consider the danger to which the national credit would be exposed, if the public conceived that they had been imposed upon, and that a measure of the utmost importance had been hurried into an act of legislation before time had been given them to understand its nature clearly. He reminded the house, that the stability of public credit, and of government itself, rested on the minds of men, and must ever fluctuate with opinion. The directors, said he, from a principle of delicacy, have but slightly touched on the danger of sapping public credit; but it becomes us to take care of that essential point.

I have two powerful objections to the measure proposed. It is pernicious to public credit, and unjust to the Bank of England. The floating balance is money lodged in the hands of the Directors by persons who are the customers of the Bank. I say, it is money lodged in their hands by their customers; for the Bank of England differs in no respect from other Banks, except that it is greater and more responsible. Now what difference is there

between 100l. which a gentleman lodges at the Bank of England, and 100l. of unclaimed dividends which he suffers to remain in their hands? Certainly none. The public creditor has made a compact with the government. Now, after having made this compact, on what pretence can you violate it? The public creditor stipulates with government, that the interest of his money shall be lodged in the Bank of England. Nothing can be more clear than this, that the moment the dividends are issued to the Bank they can never afterwards be resumed by government, but that it is, to all intents and purposes, private property, and cannot be removed from the hands of the person to whom it was, by stipulation, entrusted, except by the express orders of those to whom it lawfully belongs.

The Chancellor of the Exchequer said the merits and principles of this bill lay in a very narrow compass. It was simply this:—Whether a very considerable sum of money, arising from the gradual accumulation of money issued for the purpose of paying the interest of the public debt, should be suffered to lie in the hands of the Bank of England, who disclaimed deriving any advantage from the use of it, or that it should be applied to the use of the public, from whose pocket it was originally taken.

Mr. Alderman Le Mesurier supported the motion, and argued, that the Bank of England were not trustees but agents for the public.

The House becoming very clamorous for the question,

Mr. Francis rose. He admitted that the Bank was not liable for the payment of any part of the interest of the public debt, but the moment the money was issued to them from the Exchequer, they became the trustees of the public creditors.

The house divided on the motion of commitment.

Ayes 191. Noes 83. Majority 108.

In the House of Commons, Wednesday, March 16, Sir Matthew White Ridley reported from the committee appointed to try the merits of the election for Barnstable, that John Cleveland, Esq. was duly elected.

That the petition of Richard Wilton, Esq. was frivolous and vexatious.

The Chancellor of the Exchequer mentioned an alteration in the sugar bill, which he wished to be made in the committee, respecting a bounty on bastard, and ground or powdered sugar, &c. exported.

The house resolved into a committee to consider of allowing such bounty; a resolution to that effect was moved and agreed to.

The house resolved into a committee on the further consideration of the Corn Bill.

The



The next clause went to fix the manner in which the prices of corn were to be ascertained in that part of Great-Britain called Scotland.

Mr. *Powys* wished to know from any gentleman of North-Britain what was the practice there, because he had heard that it was a very proper one.

Mr. *Dundas* informed the honourable gentleman that the practice in Scotland had prevailed at least for a century back, and was not meant to be altered by the present bill, because experience had proved that it was salutary and proper.—He said there was an annual meeting in every county of Scotland to settle the fiars, as it was called, for the current year; and he mentioned, amongst other reasons for this custom, that it determined the value of debts that were to be paid to the Crown, by land-holders from their estates, to settle the price of what was sold for the account of manors, or others, in the hands of trustees; and likewise as a government for many commercial bargains that were made in the country upon the average of these fiars.

Mr. *Powys* approved of that method which experience had shewn to be useful and salutary in North-Britain. He hoped, therefore, that the members for South-Britain would adopt the same practice.

Most of the subsequent clauses were gone through without any debate. The committee seeming inclined to go on with the bill, and debate the exceptionable clauses on the report,

Mr. *Ryder* proposed, that the consideration of certain clauses should be postponed to another day. He likewise intimated his intention to bring forward certain clauses in favour of the importation of corn from Ireland, Quebec, and our other American colonies; the purport of which was, that corn should be allowed to be imported from the price of forty-six to forty-eight shillings per quarter, at a duty of half-a-crown, and above that price at a duty only of sixpence.

Mr. *J. H. Browne* suggested, that it might be proper to form the regulations with respect to the importation of corn from Ireland and the colonies into a separate bill.

Sir *John Sinclair* expressed some apprehensions lest the exportation of British corn should be hurt by the indulgence granted to the importation of corn from Ireland, &c.

Mr. *Ryder* said, that the indulgence which he proposed to grant was only conditional; and on the supposition that the Irish legislature would grant the same privileges to corn imported from Great-Britain.

In the House of Lords, on Thursday, March 17, the agents of the *Scots Fess*

Election appeared at the bar, and gave notice that their clients did not mean to insist farther on the question of the votes of the Duke of Queensberry, and the Earl of Abercorn, and that to-morrow they would be ready to give in the cases for and against the votes of Lord Lindores, Lord Napier, the Earl of Moray, and Lord Newark, so that the committee might proceed on Tuesday.

Mr. Robertson, the Deputy of the Law Clerk Register of Scotland, appeared at the bar, in pursuance of the votes of the order of the House, with the original record of the proceedings at Holyrood-house, on the day of the general election.

Lord *Portchester* moved for a great number of papers relative to the war in India, which were ordered.

In the House of Commons, on Friday, March 18, the select committee appointed to try the Exeter election petition, made a report to the house of a witness who had grossly perjured in giving his testimony before the said committee.

The committee likewise reported, that they had just ground to suspect that the said witness had been guilty of wilful and corrupt perjury, and recommended it to the house to direct the Attorney General to prosecute him for the said offence.

The witness was, in pursuance of the Speaker's warrant, committed to his Majesty's gaol of Newgate.

In the House of Commons on Monday March 21, a committee was appointed to try the merits of the *Lauder* petition.

Sir *George Yonge* presented the army estimates, which were ordered to be laid on the table.

Mr. *Gilbert* brought up the report of the committee appointed to enquire into the bounties proper to be laid on sugars of a certain quality. The report stated, that it was the resolution of the committee that three shillings and four-pence be granted as a bounty on all bastard, and fine sugars, exported from Great-Britain.

Mr. *Pochin* said, that he understood that the drawback remained the same, to the great disadvantage of the sale of our sugars in the European markets. He considered it as a measure detrimental to commerce, and exceedingly injurious to the trade of the country.

Mr. *Thornton* declared, that from good authority he could state, that the trade was injured by high bounties on inferior sugars. For that, in consequence of these, it was customary for the merchants to have sugars partially refined, and after they had exported them to have them refined again for a foreign market.

The report was agreed to; and it was resolved that the committee be empowered to make a provision in the said bill, agreeable to the said report.

Colonel



Colonel Tarleton rose, and said, that consistently with the welfare of his constituents, it was his intention to bring forward a motion to accelerate the final discussion of the Slave Trade. However, as it seemed to be the general wish, that it should be postponed to a future day, he would forbear to deliver his sentiments at present, on the hardships of the case, and would content himself with declaring that he would with unremitting zeal persevere in the business to the utmost, however the extraordinary usage which he experienced from a certain quarter might have attempted to prevent him.

Mr. Pitt observed, that an order stood for a ballot for a committee to-morrow, but from the great pressure of other public business, he thought it advisable to discharge the order, and that it should stand for Thursday, and that the order for that day should be also deferred, by which regulation the different orders standing for the several ballots, would be pushed forward to the day immediately subsequent to those for which they now stood.

Mr. Pitt then moved, that the order of the day, that the house should ballot for a committee to try the merits of the Dumfries election on to-morrow, should be discharged.

Mr. Fox was astonished at the motion. He said it militated in the strongest manner against the principle of Mr. Grenville's bill.

Mr. Pitt replied, that there was much difference between the present period and that to which Mr. Fox had alluded. There had been a number of ballots which precluded many gentlemen from serving on committees, if they availed themselves, as they were intitled to do, of the exemption. Two days had elapsed without a

committee being elected, and it was probable the same inconvenience would again occur.

Mr. Grey ridiculed the idea, that the house would stand in a different situation on Thursday, to what it would on to-morrow. He could not conceive how the inconvenience would be decreased by the present motion.

Mr. Baker observed, that though a number of gentlemen had served on committees, there was a mode of obviating the difficulty; the mode he prescribed was, that an order should be issued, desiring every member, *nominatim*, to attend in his place.

Mr. Pitt demanded a division, when there appeared, ayes, 57; noes, 31; majority, 26.

The Roman Catholic bill being read a second time,

Mr. Milford moved that it be committed.

The *Master of the Rolls* said, that it was by no means his intention to impede this bill in its progress. It was comprized in his mind in too general terms, and should have enumerated those acts which it went to repeal, that the house should be in possession of what it was about to recognize.

Mr. Milford replied, that the enumerating of these acts, which were not less than six-and-twenty in number, would be attended with confusion and difficulty. After arguing to the conviction of the house, in favour of the mode which he had adopted, he moved that the bill be committed for Thursday. Agreed.

The house resolved itself into a committee on the Quebec bill, the blanks were filled, and a new clause was introduced by Mr. Pitt.

## FOREIGN INTELLIGENCE.

Warsaw, April 23.

It is not easy to represent the degree of enthusiasm which reigns here since a constitutional law has been made of the eighteen articles proposed by M. Suchotzki, for the purpose of restoring their ancient rights to the towns, and re-establishing the order of citizens in the exercise of all the privileges and prerogatives appertaining to their state. The King, who was the first to second this just and useful proposal by his support, feels the highest satisfaction at the success of it, which was particularly visible when the citizens of Warsaw went in a body to thank his Majesty for his paternal interference upon this occasion, which they did in the most animated manner; and the King, with great energy, said, "I now feel all the pleasure of royalty!"

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The hall resounded with "Long live the King." In short, it should seem that this new order of things has annihilated all pride of rank; every one seems eager to despise those unworthy prejudices of the noblesse, which will shortly only be remembered in Poland as traces of former barbarism.

Vienna, May 25. By a decree of the 6th instant, published on the 18th instant, his Majesty the Emperor and King, has charged the Chancery of the Court of Bohemia and Austria to assemble, and publish a complete collection of all the laws and regulations which have been, and are to be, published under the reign of his Majesty, that the public, and those employed in the state, may be free from all error. The first volume of this collection, containing the laws and regulations

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issued from the accession of his Majesty to the throne, till the end of the year 1790, has appeared, under the title of "Laws and Political Regulations of his Majesty the Emperor and King Leopold the Second, for the hereditary countries of Germany, Bohemia, and Galicia."

*Madrid, April 26.* Government have sent a commission to Oran to examine whether it will be worth while to re-establish or abandon that establishment. Earthquakes continue to be violently felt there, and a contagious distemper, occasioned by the dry weather, carries off numbers of the inhabitants.

Admiral Barcelo still continues to anchor with his gun-boats in the bay of Algiers, in case of anything happening on the part of the Bey of Malsara or the Emperor of Morocco.

*Lisbon, April 26.* In consequence of the peace renewed between his Most Faithful Majesty and the King of Morocco, the latter Prince has caused circular letters to be sent to all the governors of his ports, informing them of the transaction, and ordering them to respect and protect all Portuguese vessels which may arrive there. These letters are ordered to be made public.

*Rome, April 29.* On Sunday last, after the celebration of divine service, the Holy Father, accompanied by the Cardinals, Prelates, and the Princesses of France, went in his pontifical robes to the Sixtine Chapel, where his Holiness published the Bull of the Beatification of the venerable servant of God, Sister Mary de l'Incarnation, Carmelite of France.

*Warsaw, May 3.* The new constitution has just passed in the Diet, by which the Elector of Saxony is declared immediate successor to the throne of Poland; after whose demise his daughter is to inherit; and the choice of her husband, if she marries, is to be decided by the States. After this constitution had passed, the King, attended by the Marshals of the Diet, and a great number of the members, went to the cathedral, and took an oath to maintain it.

*Warsaw, May 4.* Next to rendering the Crown of Poland hereditary in the family of the Elector of Saxony, the following are the principal points of the constitution settled by the Diet:

1. The Catholic religion shall be the prevailing one in the state, and the King shall make profession of it. All other religions will, however, be admitted, and a general toleration, both civil and religious, shall constitute part of the fundamental law of the kingdom.

2. The ancient privileges and rights of the Nobility are approved and confirmed.

3. All the rights renewed and guaranteed to the citizens during the present Diet are also confirmed and ratified.

4. All foreigners who arrive and settle in Poland shall enjoy full and entire liberty.

5. The peasants are taken under the protection of the law and government; they are freed from all arbitrary impositions, and shall for the future depend, in whatever concerns their rights and labour, on the contracts which they shall themselves have entered into with their lords. All foreign husbandmen are at liberty to enter Poland, and quit it, if they have discharged all the obligations of the contract which they shall have entered into with the owner of the land.

6. The government of Poland shall be composed of three branches or distinct parts, the legislative power, the executive power, and judicial power.

7. The legislative power shall be invested exclusively in the States assembled in Diet, composed of the two Chambers united, viz. of the Senate and Chamber of Nuncios.

8. The King shall exercise the executive power with his Council. This Council shall consist of a Primate and five Ministers, who shall each have a department. None of the King's resolutions can be put into execution until they are signed by the Ministers, whose persons and property shall at each Diet be answerable for the resolutions they shall have signed. Whenever two-thirds of the Diet demand the change of the Ministers, the King must accede thereto, and appoint others in their places.

9. The election of a King can no longer fall on an individual. They shall elect one family when the Royal Family is extinct. So that after the death of his present Majesty (who the States and the whole nation ardently pray may enjoy a long life) the reigning Elector of Saxony, and his male descendants after him, shall succeed to the throne of Poland; and in default of male heirs, the Princess Mary Augusta Nepomucene, his only daughter, from this time declared Infanta of Poland, shall be Queen, and the consort whom the King and the assembled States shall choose for her shall wear the Crown, and form the stock from whence shall commence a new Royal Dynasty of Poland.

*Warsaw, May 10.* The Elector of Saxony has accepted of the succession to the Crown of Poland, and has approved of the constitution established by the Diet.

Although we have not heard of any opposition to the new form of government, yet we have reason to fear that cabals will be raised against it in some provinces of the kingdom.

*Frankfort, May 13.* A stranger has constructed at Freibourg, an ærostatic eagle, eighty feet high; his first experiment succeeded perfectly well, and he intends shortly

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*Orange, May 31.* The Avignon army continue to ravage the Comtat. The people of Carpentras, on the other hand, secure within their walls, made a sally on the 27th, with the design of drawing the enemy within reach of their cannon.

This design succeeded; the Avignon army, in pursuing the party sent out to attack them, invested Carpentras once more, and cannonaded the town with red hot bullets. But as they still kept at too great a distance, the besieged made use of a very extraordinary and ingenious stratagem to encourage them to approach nearer. They placed pots of combustible matter on many of their most elevated buildings, which gave the appearance of the town being set on fire by the enemy's bullets.

The Avignon army attempted to make a breach in the walls; at this moment the besieged fired their cannon, charged with old iron, &c. At this attack it is thought the Avignon army lost five or six hundred men killed and dangerously wounded.

The misunderstanding between the municipality of Avignon and its army still subsists, and the city is menaced with pillage and massacre. The General Jourdan, surnamed *Coupe-tetes*, writes, that *vengeance boils in his veins*.

An insurrection took place at Bailleul, a town in Flanders, at the installation of the new Constitutional Curé of that place, in which some persons lost their lives, and the National Guard was overpowered, and obliged to retire to a castle, till succour arrived, sent by M. Montrozier, commandant of the department.

A letter from Worms, of the 30th of May, describes the Prince de Condé as surrounded by a numerous Court; and that the French emigrants flock to him from all parts of Switzerland, Germany, and Italy. A guard is regularly mounted at his hotel, which service has hitherto been performed by the French officers in his suite; but lately the Elector Palatine has furnished him with 600 men. M. de Condé, and the young Duke d'Enghien, with the other leaders of the expatriated French, reckon more upon the discontented within the kingdom than their own force, which, however, amounts at present to 800 officers, and 3000 or 4000 soldiers.

#### WEST-INDIA NEWS.

*Martinique (Port Trinity) Feb. 20.* The dreadful situation of this miserable island is not to be described, as there is not a day escapes but with the loss of thirty or forty of its inhabitants, and those that remain, seem determined to proceed in the carnage. All our hopes are centered in the assistance we expect from our mother country; if that fails, the Mulattos must

become masters of the country, as they are at least fifteen to one in number more than the whites.

*Basle, June 1.* We are still in the same disposition towards France. We learn from Berne, that French emigrants abound in that Canton; some come from Savoy and Piedmont, others from Italy, and some from Germany. They talk highly of a counter-revolution in France, and wear the white cockade.

*Paris, June 9.* To-morrow assignats to the value of eight millions, will be burnt, which will make in all 147 millions destroyed.

#### DOMESTIC OCCURRENCES.

*June 4.* This being his Majesty's Birthday, the following Ode, written by H. J. Pye, Esq. Poet Laureat, was performed at St. James's.

##### I.

LOUD the whirlwind rag'd around  
That shook affrighted Britain's shore,  
In peals of louder thunder drown'd  
That mingled with the wintry roar,  
Dreadful amid the driving storm  
The gliding meteor's horrid form  
With transient gleam illum'd the air,  
While thro' December's murky night  
Refulgent with unwonted light,  
The livid flashes glare.

##### II.

But see! the radiant lord of day  
Now northward rolls his burning car,  
And scatters with victorious ray  
The rage of elemental war.  
To rest the troubled waves subside,  
And gently o'er the curling tide,  
Young Zephyr leads the vernal hours,  
Adorns with richest dyes the vale,  
And fragrance wafts on every gale  
From June's ambrosial flowers.

##### III.

O may no lowering gloom o'ercast  
Th' auspicious morn to Britain dear,  
Or Eurus check with envious blast  
The promise of the rip'ning year!  
Or should some transitory cloud  
Awhile th' ethereal splendour shroud,  
Soon shall the sun his stream renew,  
Soon shall the landscape smile around  
With more luxuriant verdure crown'd,  
And bloom with livelier hue.

##### IV.

Exulting in her Prince rever'd,  
Whose mild parental virtues grace  
The sacred throne by glory rear'd  
On Freedom's adamant base,  
While Albion pours the festive strain,  
Responsive to her choral train  
The Muse enraptur'd joins the throng,  
Proud that a grateful people's praise  
Echoes the votive verse she pays,  
And consecrates her song.

## MARRIED.

Mifs Coates, daughter of John Dawson Coates, Esq. an eminent banker, of Dublin, to Mr. Hutchinson, both of the people called Quakers.

At the Quakers meeting, in Worcester, Mr. Devereux Bowley, of Cirencester, banker, to Mifs Sarah Beeley, daughter of Mr. Henry Beeley, of Barborne.

Rev. William Browne, of Lamfield Place, Herts, to Mifs Barrington, daughter of Sir Fitzwilliam Barrington, Bart.

Rev. T. Blyth, M. A. rector of Elmdon, in Warwickshire, and chaplain to the Right Hon. Earl of Digby, to Mifs Dethirk, of the above place.

Captain Harwood, of his Majesty's third regiment of foot guards, to Mifs Charlotte Augusta Chambers, third daughter of Sir William Chambers, of Whitton place.

At Bombay, John Fell, Esq. in the Hon. East India Company's civil service, to Mifs Anne Elizabeth James, grand-daughter of the late Sir William James, Bart.

Rev. Samuel Heyrick, rector of Brampton by Dingley, in Northamptonshire, to Mrs. Power, widow of the late George Power, Esq.

Rev. Mr. Nicholas, of Ealing, to Mifs Shury, daughter of the late Rev. Mr. Shury, of the same place.

By special licence, Thomas Neave, Esq. to Mifs Caroline Digby, daughter of the late Dean of Durham.

Isaac Wilkison, Esq. of Chesterfield, in the county of Derby, to Mifs Anne Colightly, of Berners-street.

John Davidson, Esq. of Hill-top, near Kendal, to Mifs Pennington, of Kendal, niece to Rowland Stephenson, Esq.

James Buller, Esq. of Downs, in Devonshire, to Mifs Anne Buller, daughter of the Dean of Canterbury.

Joseph Dickenson, Esq. one of the High Sheriffs of Dublin, to Mifs Jane Foot, daughter of Lundy Foot, Esq. of that city.

Sir Thomas Cave, Bart. of Stanford Hall, in the county of Leicester, to Lady Lucy Sherrard, daughter of the Right Hon. the Earl of Harborough.

Thomas Papillon, Esq. of Acrife, in Kent, to Mifs Anne Pelham, daughter of Henry Pelham, Esq. late a Commissioner of his Majesty's Customs.

George Pocock, Esq. son of Sir George Pocock, K. B. to Mifs Charlotte Long, daughter of Edward Long, Esq. of Wimpole-street.

Francis Buller Yarde, Esq. M. P. only son of the Hon. Mr. Justice Buller, to Mifs Holliday, daughter and only child of John Holliday, Esq. of Great Ormond-street.

Captain Duff, of his Majesty's navy, to Mifs Sophia Derom, second daughter of the late Alexander Derom, Esq. of Muirek.

Sir Stafford Henry Northcote, Bart. to Mifs Jaquetta Baring, eldest daughter of Charles Baring, Esq.

John Kneller, of Donhead-Hall, Wilts, Esq. to Mifs Sophia Hayne, youngest daughter of the Rev. John Hayne, late of Totness, Devon.

John Antrobus, Esq. of the Strand, banker, to Mifs Crawford, daughter of Gibbs Crawford, Esq. member for Queenborough.

Rev. George Beevor, son of Sir Thomas Beevor, Bart. of Heithel, Norfolk, to Mifs Branthwayt, of Stiffkey, in that county.

At Fortfield, in Ireland, John Bingham, Esq. of Newbroke, county of Mayo, to Mifs Yelverton, only daughter of the Right Hon. Lord Chief Baron Yelverton.

Rev. Thomas Ellis Owen, of Bangor, to Mifs Harriot Chester, second daughter of the late Robert Chester, Esq. of Curzon-street, May-fair.

Joseph Merceten, Esq. of Bethnal-green, to Mifs Cothery, only daughter of Henry Cothery, Esq. of Bentley Heath.

John Dore, Esq. of Reading, to Mrs. Vane, of Bilby, in the county of Nottingham, relict of the late Morgan Vane, Esq.

Richard Harrison, of Friars Barnet, Esq. to Mifs Moore, of Taunton, Somersetshire.

W. Murray, Esq. to Mifs A. Campbell. D. Bird, Esq. to Mifs C. Mols Taylor, of the Wood, Shropshire.

William Farrington, Esq. of Shaw-hill, in the county of Lancaster, to Mifs Wilbraham Bootle.

Rev. George Borlase, Casuistical Professor in Cambridge, to Mifs Harriot Serocold.

Thomas Sotheby, Esq. Captain in his Majesty's navy, to Mifs Sarah Anley, youngest daughter of Christopher Anley, Esq. of Bath.

Charles Mattendolce, Esq. to Mifs Hurrell, of Foxton, Cambridgeshire.

Chambrey Brabazon Ponsonby, Esq. Member in the Irish Parliament for Dungarvan, to Lady Harriot Taylor, eldest daughter to the Earl of Beilive.

William Carlyon Hughes, Esq. of the Royal Fusiliers, to Mifs Jenks, of Great George-street.

Lucena, Esq. to Mifs Mary Ann Lancaster, daughter of Joseph Lancaster, Esq. of Hampstead.

Charles Morton, M. D. principal librarian of the Museum, to Mifs Pratt, eldest daughter of Joseph Pratt, Esq. of Cabra Castle, in the kingdom of Ireland.

Richard Lee, Esq. of Lombard-street, banker, to Mifs Smith, of Finchley.

Rev. John Cleaver Banks, of Nunnington, Yorkshire, to Mifs Elizabeth Rhode, of West Wickham.

Mr. John Lloyd, of the East India-house, to Mifs Sophia Dayrell, daughter of

of the late Marmaduke Dayrell, Esq. of Camps, in Cambridgeshire.

Rev. Mr. Pace, to Miss Pye, of Walworth.

Robert Wynne, Esq. Member of Parliament for the borough of Sligo, to Miss Elizabeth Singleton, daughter of Sydney Singleton, Esq. of Dublin.

William Nicholls, Esq. to Miss Russell, niece to the late Sir Peter Leicester, of Tabley, Bart.

Captain J. Lucas, to Miss C. Abrams.

Rev. William French, of Bow, Middlesex, to Miss Amelia Farrer.

Lieutenant George Green, of the marines, to Miss Cranston, of East-Court, East Grinstead, Sussex.

William Cleo, Esq. of the Prince of Wales's Household, to Miss Hauden, of St. James's place.

Robert Knight, of Barrills, Warwickshire, Esq. to the Hon. Miss F. Dormer, youngest daughter of the Right Hon. Lord Dormer.

Thomas Mure, of Warriston, Esq. to Miss Boyle, eldest daughter of the Hon. Patrick Boyle, of Showalton.

Joseph Shrimpton, Esq. of Bedford-square, to Miss Ewer, of Clapham.

Dr. Malcolm M'Queen, of Norwich, to Miss Potter, of Harley-street.

Henry Jermyn, Esq. of Lincoln's Inn, to Mrs. Douglas, of Thornhaugh-street, Bedford-square, widow of Thomas Douglas, Esq.

Nicholas Roundell Toke, Esq. eldest son of John Toke, Esq. of Godington in Kent, to Miss Anna Maria Wrey, youngest daughter of the late, and sister of the present Sir Bourchier Wrey. Bart. of Tavistock.

Jerome William Knapp, of the Middle Temple, Esq. to Miss Robinson, of Harpur-street, Red Lion Square.

Rev. Dr. Somers of Charlotte Street, to Mrs. Newton of Tavistock Street, Bedford-square.

Richard Weeks, Esq. to Mrs. Hill, widow of the late Thomas Hill, Esq. of Twickenham.

Thomas Ferrers, Esq. of Whitechapel, to Miss Gilbert, daughter of William Gilbert, Esq. of Newport, Isle of Wight.

John Llewelyn, Esq. of Glamorganshire, to Miss Goring, only daughter of Charles Goring, Esq.

Robert Anstie, Esq. Captain in his Majesty's 9th regiment of Light Dragoons, to Mrs. Light, widow of the late William Light, Esq. of Madras.

Benjamin Cherry, Esq. eldest son of the late Alderman Cherry, of Hertford, to Miss Frances Orme.

William Davis, Esq. of Craven Hill, upwards of 70, to Miss Davis, of High House Boarding School, Paddington, aged 17.

Ralph Dodsworth, Esq. an Alderman of York, to Mrs. Wharton, relict of the late Christopher Wharton, Esq.

Captain John Marjoribanks, of the first regiment of Foot Guards, to Miss Allison Ramsay, eldest daughter of William Ramsay, Esq. banker, of Edinburgh.

Charles Smith, of Bromley, Middlesex, Esq. to Miss Susannah Devall, daughter of Mr. John Devall, of St. Mary le Bonne.

# D I E D.

At her house, in Spa Fields, the Right Hon. the Countess of Huntingdon.

Sir Gerard Vanneck, of Heveningham Hall, in the county of Suffolk.

At Rippon, Bartholomew Rymer, aged 100 years; he was game-keeper to Sir Bellingham Graham, of Norton Conyers, Bart. and shot game flying in his 99th year.

Mr. James Barbut, late of the Bank, and author of several approved publications in Natural History.

Miss Graves, at her uncle's, Mr. Isaac Smith's, house, Field-grove, Edmonton.

Thomas Adderley, Esq. Member in the Irish Parliament for the borough of Brandon.

Mrs. Susannah Roberts, of Southgate, Middlesex, widow, aged 67 years.

Mr. Roger Curtis, an eminent farmer, of Downton, in Wiltshire; and father of Captain Sir Roger Curtis.

At Gosport, Captain Edward Shepherd, of the royal navy.

Mr. John Wilkes, son of Mr. Heaton Wilkes.

Lieutenant Colonel David Muirhead, late of the East-India Company's service.

Rev. Dr. James Gillespie, Principal of St. Mary's College, St. Andrew's, and one of his Majesty's chaplains in ordinary for Scotland.

In the 57th year of her age, Mrs. Jane Berthon, widow of the late Paul Berthon, Esq. of Lisbon, merchant.

At Altona, William Hutchinson, Esq. merchant, of that place.

Aged 75, Mrs. Street, relict of Mr. George Street, late of Bucklersbury.

At Keith, in East Lothian, Lieutenant-Colonel Hepburn.

Rev. Rowland Duer, chaplain to the Lord Bishop of Lincoln, and brother-in-law to Mr. Rose, of the Treasury.

Mrs. Margaret Rose, widow of the late Rev. Mr. James Hay, of the Episcopal church, Inverness.

In the 72d year of her age, Mrs. Chalmers, relict of the late Mr. Chalmers, printer, Aberdeen.

Miss Eliza Hassell Wilson, daughter of John Wilson, Esq. late of George-Town, South Carolina.

Master



Master Samuel Harcourt Boys, aged thirteen years, eldest son of William Boys, Esq. of Wigfell, Suffex.

John Crosbie, Esq. one of the senior aldermen of Liverpool.

William Constable, Esq. of Burton, in Holderness.

In the 81st year of her age, greatly lamented by her numerous relations and friends, the Right Hon. Lady Carpenter, widow of the grandfather of the present Earl of Tyrconnel, and mother to the Countess of Egremont.

Mrs. Parry, wife of the Rev. William Parry, of Little Baddow.

Miss Susanna James, fourth daughter of the late Mr. William James, banker.

Rev. James Tatterfall, vicar of Tewkesbury.

At Tamerton, near Plymouth, Colonel Crabb, twenty-five years in the Hon. East India Company's service.

Mrs. Elizabeth Gurney, relict of the late Mr. Henry Gurney, banker, of Norwich.

Mrs. Gore, lady of the Deputy Lieutenant of the Tower.

In the twenty-second year of her age, Miss Charlotte Sarah Hammond, one of the daughters of the late Leonard Hammond, Esq. and sister to the Lady of the Right Hon. the Speaker of the House of Commons.

In the island of Barbadoes, the Hon. Benjamin Nicolls, Chief Judge of the Common Pleas for the precinct of St. Michael, in the said island.

At Glasgow, Dr. Alexander Stevenson, Professor of Medicine in the University there.

Sir John Playters, of Sotterly, Suffolk, Bart.

Mrs. Higby, aged upwards of 90 years: She retained her faculties to the last hour of her life; and was mother, grandmother, and great grandmother to 250 children.

At Wenvoe Castle, in the county of Glamorgan, Peter Birt, Esq.

At Rochester, Mr. Alderman Taylor, who had twice served the office of mayor of that city.

At Edinburgh, the Hon. Mrs. Baron Gordon.

Mrs. Elizabeth Sophia Nesbitt, eldest daughter of the late Robert Nesbitt, M. D.

Mrs. Amy Whitton Malpas, aged 69 years, wife of Joseph Malpas, Esq. of Chelsea.

Crosby Nesbitt, Esq. formerly representative in parliament for the borough of Cavan.

At Birr, in Ireland, the Hon. John Baron Dillon, junior cornet in the 7th (or Prince's Royal's) dragoon guards.

At Keatish-Town, Job May, Esq.

At Putney, Edward Lewis, Esq.

The Lady of Sir Alexander Mackenzie, of Coul, Bart. to whom he was married sixty years.

Mrs. Mary Alder, at her house in Caroline-street, Bedford-square.

At Gosport, Captain Taylor, of the royal navy.

In her 84th year, Mrs. Fladgate.

Miss Bolaine, niece to the Right Hon. the Countess of Denbigh.

Miss Lascelles, eldest daughter of Michael Lascelles, Esq. of Salisbury-street, Strand.

In the Fleet-prison, after a confinement of nine years, Clement Ives, Esq. formerly one of his Majesty's justices of the peace for the county of Norfolk.

John Fielder, Esq. of Chiddingfold, in Surrey, in a fit of insanity, shot himself. The coroner's inquest brought in their verdict, Lunacy. By his death an estate of near 2000l. a year devolves to his nephew, Mr. Stilwell, of Godalming.

Nathaniel Turner, Esq. of Stoke Hall, near Ipswich, Suffolk.

At Florence, the Hon. Mrs. Beckford, relict of Peter Beckford, Esq; and daughter of the Right Hon. Lord Rivers.

Mrs. Tarbutt, wife of George Tarbutt, Esq. of Gould-square.

John Knox, Esq. of Waringsford, in the county of Down, Ireland, only brother of the Right Hon. Lord Welles.

At Mrs. Leigh's, Broadwell, Gloucestershire, Captain John Frodsham, of the royal navy; not less remarkable for his amiable manners and integrity of mind, than for his valour and conduct as an officer. He was thirty-eight years in the service, had been in seven actions, and experienced all the dangerous and trying vicissitudes incident to his profession, without the good fortune of acquiring any advantage in return. He was promoted from the rank of lieutenant by Admiral Byron, in approbation of his conduct in negotiating with Comte D'Estaigoe, when employed on a flag of truce; and to the rank of post captain by Admiral Keppel, for his signal and memorable action with the La Fée, a French frigate of 36 guns, to which he gallantly opposed the Aligator, a sloop of 14 guns, for an hour and three quarters, till his vessel was reduced to a wreck. This slight tribute is paid to him by one well acquainted with his virtues, and who was sincerely attached to him for them, at a time when it can answer no other end, but to render justice to a worthy character, whose modesty ever led him to conceal his own merits. He married Miss Anne Leigh, second daughter of the Rev. Peter Leigh, of Lymm, in Cheshire, and granddaughter of Dr. Egerton Leigh, of an ancient family, of High Leigh, in the same county.

Mrs.

Mrs. Lockman, aged 84, widow of Mr. John Lockman, formerly Secretary to the British Herring Fishery.

In her 75th year, at her house in Vere-street, Cavendish-square, Mrs. Elizabeth Gore, aunt to Charles Orlando Gore, Esq. of Brussels.

Emma Elizabeth Proby, eldest daughter of the Earl of Carysfort.

Mr. Obadiah Hulme, of Charter-house-square, author of an Historical Essay on the English Constitution, and of several other tracts.

At New York, North America, Polycarpus William Taylor, Esq. formerly an Officer in his Majesty's 57th regiment of foot.

Lady Egerton, relict of the late Sir Thomas Grey Egerton, Bart. and mother of the Right Honourable Lord Grey de Wilton.

Dr. Michael Morris, of Parliament-street, late Inspector-General and Physician to his Majesty's Forces in America.

# BANKRUPTS.

Thomas Durham, of Cockspur-street, Middlesex, bookseller. Richard Shepley, of Wandsworth, Surry, dealer and chapman. John Bromley, late purser of the Earl of Oxford East-Indiaman, but now of Lambeth, Surry, dealer and chapman. James Goodwin and Thomas Rodbard, late of Blackfriars, in the city of London, copartners and oilmen. William Minster, of the city of Coventry, mercer. John Linstead, late of Woodbridge, Suffolk, merchant. John Johnson, of Red-lion-passage, Red-lion-square, Middlesex, hatter. William Lewis, of Ludlow, Salop, cooper. Charles Reinhold Foster and Henry Weiss, of Liverpool, Lancashire, merchants and copartners. Peter Crapp, late of the Castle Inn, Wood-street, in the city of London, victualler, formerly of Plymouth, Devonshire, brewer, but now of Greenfield-street, Whitechapel, Middlesex, dealer and chapman. Samuel Fox, of Birmingham, Warwickshire, dealer and chapman. Gerrard Guillod, of Oxendon-street, in the parish of St. Martin in the Fields, Middlesex, coal merchant. Alexander Gardiner, of Long-acre, Middlesex, saddler. William Bailey, late of St. John-street, Middlesex, bookseller and stationer. Ann Aldern, late of Swithin's-alley, near the Royal-Exchange, in the city of London, vintner. Edward Eginton, of Turnmill-street, in the parish of St. James, Clerkenwell, Middlesex, victualler. William Lancaster, of Irish-court, Whitechapel, Middlesex, brewer. Thomas Roberts, late of Davies-street, in the parish of St. George, Hanover-

square, Middlesex, victualler. Richard Taylor, of Manchester, Lancashire, suttan-manufacturer. William Moore, of Duke-street, York-buildings, Middlesex, tailor. Samuel Edwards, of Webber-street, in the parish of St. George the Martyr, Surry, bricklayer. William Lewis and John Douglas, both of Liverpool, Lancashire, joiners and copartners. William Luth, of the city of New Sarum, Wilts, carpenter and joiner. James Mather, of Ordsall, in the parish of Manchester, Lancashire, dealer and chapman. William Horton, of Wolverhampton, Staffordshire, ironmonger. Joseph Barnett, of Black-friars-road, in the parish of Christ-church, Surry, coal-merchant. James Cole Martin and George Akerman, late of Cheap-side, in the city of London, merchants and copartners. Edward Phillips, late of the town of Monmouth; salt-merchant. John Crocker, of Portsmouth, Hants, broker and undertaker. Samuel Harris, Bull-head-court, Newgate-street, London, haberdasher. Thomas Turner, of Stafford, hofier. William Clifton, late of Dorrington-street, Middlesex, but now of Ludgate-hill, in the city of London, dealer and chapman. Thomas Baker, the younger, late of Kingston upon Thames, distiller, (but now a prisoner in the King's Bench prison.) William Kendall, late of Duke-street, Manchester-square, dealer and chapman. Jacob Levy Powell, of Gravel-lane, Houndsditch, in the city of London, glass-manufacturer. William Wyllie, of Hart-street, Bloomsbury, Middlesex, tailor. William Powers, of the Minorities, London, linen-draper. William Pigginn, of Bulwell, Nottingham, butcher. James Lang, late of Bow-lane, Cheap-side, London, merchant. George Fowler, of Scotland-yard, Westminster, Middlesex, merchant. William Sharp, the younger, now or late of Ashby de la Zouch, Leicestershire, inn-keeper. John James, of Tuglyn, Cardigan-shire, merchant. Hamlet Lowe, of Manchester, Lancashire, auctioneer. Joshua Long, the elder, and Joshua Long, the younger, late of Cheap-side, London, grocers, confectioners, and copartners, (but now prisoners in the Fleet prison.) Thomas Barham, of Deal, Kent, grocer. James Allen and Edward Allen, of the town of Poole, anchor-smiths, ironmongers and copartners. John Price, of Long-acre, Middlesex, cheesemonger. William Gray, of Nottingham, bookseller. Edward Bowbeer, of Church-lane, in the parish of St. Mary, Whitechapel, Middlesex, victualler. William Crawley, of Fleet-street, in the city of London, tinman. John Lucas, of York-street, Covent-garden, Middlesex, linen-draper. Francis Prior, of Plymouth, Devonshire, milliner and haberdasher.

# PRICE OF STOCKS IN MAY AND JUNE, 1791.

Bank Days	Stock 16	3 per Ct. 18	4 per Ct. 20	5 per Ct. 22	Long Ann. 24	Short ditto 26	India Stock. 28	India Ann. 30	India Bonds. 32	S. Sea Stock. 34	Old Ann. 36	New Ann. 38	New 3 per Ct. 40	Tontine Bills. 42	Lottery Tickets. 44
16	185	80	81	82	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
18	185	80	81	82	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
20	185	80	81	82	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
22	185	80	81	82	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
24	185	80	81	82	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
26	185	80	81	82	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
28	185	80	81	82	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
30	185	80	81	82	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
32	185	80	81	82	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
34	185	80	81	82	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
36	185	80	81	82	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
38	185	80	81	82	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
40	185	80	81	82	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
42	185	80	81	82	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
44	185	80	81	82	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
46	185	80	81	82	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
48	185	80	81	82	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
50	185	80	81	82	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
52	185	80	81	82	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
54	185	80	81	82	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
56	185	80	81	82	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
58	185	80	81	82	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
60	185	80	81	82	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
62	185	80	81	82	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
64	185	80	81	82	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
66	185	80	81	82	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
68	185	80	81	82	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
70	185	80	81	82	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
72	185	80	81	82	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
74	185	80	81	82	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
76	185	80	81	82	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
78	185	80	81	82	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
80	185	80	81	82	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
82	185	80	81	82	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
84	185	80	81	82	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
86	185	80	81	82	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
88	185	80	81	82	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
90	185	80	81	82	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

## METEOROLOGICAL DIARY In LONDON, for June, 1791. By Mr. W. JONES, Optician, HOLBORN. Height of the Barometer and Thermo- meter with Fahrenheit's Scale.

Days.	Barometer. Inches, and 100th Parts.			Thermome- ter. Fahrenheit's.			Weather in June, 1791.
	8 o'Clock Morning	11 o'Clock Night		8 o'Clock Morning	Noon.	11 o'Clock	
May 27	30	17	30	18	55	65	Fair
28	30	18	30	18	56	67	Ditto
29	30	13	30	9	50	60	Ditto
30	30	31	30	7	51	61	Ditto
31	30	31	29	93	54	67	Ditto
June 1	29	88	29	92	69	74	Ditto
2	29	95	29	98	68	78	Ditto
3	29	98	29	98	66	74	Ditto
4	29	98	29	96	66	76	Ditto
5	29	95	30	90	68	78	Ditto
6	30	0	30	10	65	76	Ditto
7	30	08	29	98	67	78	Ditto
8	29	88	24	87	57	64	Ditto
9	29	77	29	74	51	66	Ditto
10	29	68	29	52	62	67	Ditto
11	29	52	29	52	48	52	Ditto
12	29	53	29	54	47	61	Ditto
13	29	54	29	57	50	55	Showers
14	29	55	29	58	50	54	Cloudy
15	29	58	29	60	53	57	Showers
16	29	31	29	41	55	58	Showers
17	29	20	29	43	58	60	Showers
18	29	47	29	53	60	62	Ditto
19	29	69	29	55	59	64	Fair
20	29	68	29	69	53	59	Cloudy
21	29	57	29	60	49	54	Ditto
22	29	66	29	68	55	60	Fair
23	29	93	29	93	58	65	Ditto
24	29	94	29	94	59	64	Ditto
25	29	94	29	88	64	69	Ditto
26	29	84	29	75	69	73	Ditto

### Corn-Exchange, London.

### RETURNS OF CORN AND GRAIN From June 6, to June 11, 1791.

	Quar- ters.	Price.			Avr. Pr. per. Qr.		
		£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.
Barley	4310	5105	9	8	1	3	8
Beans	1343	1782	5	1	6	6	
Malt	3598	6666	18	8	1	17	0
Oats	5574	5229	10	11	0	18	9
Pease	116	159	0	10	1	7	5
Rye	114	152	5	9	1	6	8
R. Seed							
Wheat	3164	7446	18	10	2	7	0
Bigg							

ARY  
791.  
L.BORN.  
Thermo.

Weather  
in  
June,  
1791.

# I N D E X

TO VOL. VI. OF THE

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